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REQUIRED READING FOR THE CHAUTAUQUA LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC CIRCLE.

ICELAND AND ITS PEOPLE.*

BY RUTH SHAFFNER.

OWING to the lack of telegraphic communication with other lands and the long interval between mail-



FESTIVE DRESS OF THE PRESENT TIME.

steamers, Iceland is more completely cut off from the world than any other portion of the civilized globe, though in direct line it is only eight hundred miles north of Scotland. Bordering on the arctic circle and possessing a name suggesting a frigid atmosphere, a natural conclusion would be that it is wrapped in perpetual winter and surrounded by icebergs and glaciers. On the contrary, the climate closely resembles that of England and sometimes the winters are almost devoid of ice and snow. The Gulf Stream,¹ after warming into life the British Isles, sweeps to the northwest, retaining a sufficient quantity of heat to overcome the natural temperature of the east arctic currents. June, July, and August are the summer months,

*The Notes on the Required Readings in THE CHAUTAUQUAN will be found following those on the books of the course, in the C. L. S. C. Department of the magazine.

when the sun shines with as much strength as during June in the central part of the United States.

The Icelanders divide the year into the light and dark seasons. It is a strange sensation to a foreigner who goes to the far North between the months of March and August to find that he is beyond the region of night. To one accustomed to wait for retiring until shut in by the darkness, the continuous light soon becomes wearisome. With the sun above the horizon and a singularly rare atmosphere an evening walk may be unconsciously continued until midnight and an interesting book may cause one to forget the hours for sleep until the maid enters the room with the morning coffee. After a few days of this activity, nature begins to assert her claims, and instead of the sun dial, the watch is intrusted with nocturnal registration. A nap in the middle of the day may be restful and pleasant,



FESTIVE COSTUME OF THE EARLY VIKINGS.

but regularly to retire in broad daylight seems unnatural.

During June and a part of July the sun does not set,³ though for a few hours about midnight it is visible only from the mountain tops, while in the valleys is seen all the glory of a regular sunset and no Italian sky can boast of greater splendor. At times the colors are intensified, as if each would claim by contrast the richest beauty; then by hands invisible the scene is shifted, until all is enveloped in a calmer loveliness, betokening the rest and harmony of an unseen world.

heathen and believed in luck and chance as the manifested will of their gods. On arriving within sight of the snowy dome of the Öraefa Jökull, that monarch of Icelandic mountains, Ingölf, the leader of the colony, flung overboard his *öndvegissalar*, or high-seated pillars, that he might follow where the gods might send him and there establish the headquarters of the nation. A sudden storm came on, the pillars drifted off and the captain made for the nearest shore. After three years of diligent search the pillars were found on the desolate plains of a lava



WOMEN CLEANING AND DRYING CODFISH.

Iceland, like many another country, was originally settled by those who fled from oppression in their native land.

In the year 874, when Herald Haarfagr (the Fair-haired) determined to assume despotic control of the Norwegians, his lords and nobles, being the personal owners of the ships, took their families and emigrated to Iceland and thus began "the exodus of the Vikings."³ There they settled upon separate estates, each being allowed as much land as he could encircle in one day of fast riding on horseback. The people were

stream in the west. Hard by was a rivulet from a spring in whose bed rose a column of steam. Here Ingölf made his settlement and called it Reykjavik,⁴ the Reeking or Smoking Bay,—which to the present time remains the capital city.

About sixty years after the first settlers came to the country, one of their number was sent out to find a place for the meeting of the Thing.* He found it at Thingvill⁵

* Meeting is "mot-thing," just as hustling is "house-thing"—the one a public gathering of the freeholders of a district, the other the gathering of the householders.—R. S.

in the southwest of the country on a free-man's broad lands, which had just been confiscated for crime. Here on a lovely, gay, sunlit flat, ten miles broad, lower by a hundred feet than the plateau to the northeast, whence a precipitous descent is made through a natural chasm, many ages ago, some vast commotion shook the foundations of the



AN ICELANDIC WOMAN.

island, where rivers of lava, bubbling up from the secret recesses of the earth, poured down the natural ridges, until, escaping from their narrow gorges, they found space and spread themselves into one vast sheet of lava stone. This surface was shattered into a network of innumerable crevices and fissures fifty or sixty feet deep and "each wide enough to have swallowed the entire company of Korah." Gazing into the depths we find streams of cold water, so pure that the patterns may be traced on the surface of the bottom.

At the foot of the plain lies a vast and

marvelously beautiful lake where the imprisoned waters gather, having burst up through the lava strata as it subsided beneath them. By a freak of nature the subsiding plain cracked and shivered into twenty thousand fissures. An irregular area of two hundred and fifty by fifty feet was left almost entirely surrounded by a crevice so deep and broad as to be utterly impassable. At one extremity alone a scanty causeway connects it with the adjoining level. This spot, erected by nature almost into a fortress, the framers of the Icelandic Constitution chose for the meeting place of their Thing or Parliament, and here the first laws of the land were solemnly adopted. To this day may be seen the ridges which served as seats for the chiefs and judges of the land (for the meetings were held in the open air), while on the outer ridges glistened the tents and booths of the assembled masses of the people.



AN ICELANDIC GIRL.



ESCORT PARTY FOR FOREIGN GUESTS.

For three hundred years the gallant little republic maintained its unequaled liberty and political vigor, and that at a time when feudal despotism was the only government known throughout Europe. Like the Scotch nobles in the time of Elizabeth, their own chieftains intrigued against the liberties of the Icelandic people and in 1261 the island became an appanage of the Norwegian crown; yet even then the deed embodying the



AN ICELANDIC PEASANT.

concession of their independence was drawn up in such haughty terms as to resemble rather the offer of an equal alliance than the renunciation of imperial rights. "The ancient laws and rights remained intact and the Althing held its ground." Soon, however, the apathy which invariably benumbs the faculties of a people too entirely relieved from the discipline and obligation of self-government, lapsed into inactivity, moral, political, and intellectual, and the fruitage of a "heroic age" ceased.

In 1360, on the amalgamation of the three Scandinavian monarchies, the allegiance of the people of Iceland was passively transferred to the Danish crown. From that time

Danish restrictions, more or less oppressive, regulated their trade. "In 1602 it was farmed by the Danish government to a monopolist Copenhagen company, with the natural consequence that the prices of imported goods, including corn, salt, coffee, and fish-lines, rose threefold, while those of exports fell. Eighty-two years later the Icelanders were forbidden to trade at all except through this company." In 1854 this measure was rescinded and now they are free to enjoy commercial intercourse with all nations. The Althing, which had met for nine hundred years at Thingvalla beneath the open heavens, was closed in 1800, but was allowed to reopen at Reykjavik in 1845.

Great friction has always characterized the relations between Iceland and Denmark, for the Icelanders have ever maintained the right to be governed by their ancient laws. In recent times, "the Icelandic patriot," Jón Sigurdsson, was raised up, the aim of whose life was to regain the liberty of his people. "He took the position that Iceland was not a dependency of the Danish people and hence was not subject to the jurisdiction of the Danish legislature but that it was a dependency of the Danish crown and that the only sovereign rights which subsisted in Iceland were the sovereign rights of the king of Denmark. Upon that line which exhibited his far-seeing wis-



VIEW OF AKUREYRI, THE NORTHERN CAPITAL.

dom and policy, he labored" and reached the goal in 1874, the millennial anniversary of the settlement of the country. King Christian went to Iceland in person and there upon the famous Lögberg, at Thingvalla, he delivered to a deputation of the descendants of Icelandic nobles, the free constitution: "an act that will keep alive his name as long as history is read and men have hearts that gladden at the rehearsal of generous deeds."

Nominally, Iceland is still a dependency of Denmark, but possesses most of the liberties of a free people. Their Althing meets

The governor is always an Iclander, appointed by the king for life upon the recommendation of the Althing. A shrewd politician, when asked whether the people would not prefer this appointment to changing hands more frequently, remarked that they were always careful to recommend a man of advanced years so that no one held the office very long.

The Althing possesses the power to frame all the laws of the land. A bill can be introduced into either House and must pass both Houses by a majority of votes in order



REYKJARIK, THE CAPITAL, WITH PARLIAMENT HOUSE IN CENTER.

every alternate year and comprises two houses, an upper and a lower chamber, the former numbering twelve and the latter twenty-four members. The members serve for a period of six years, one third of the number being elected every two years. Of the number in the Upper Chamber, six are of the king's appointment from among the Icelanders, the other six are elected by the Althing. All the members of the Lower Chamber are elected directly by the people, and be it said to the credit of the nation that the best men of the country are sent to the Althing.

to become a law. Should a measure involve the alteration or nullification of a fundamental principle of the Constitution, then it must be sent to Copenhagen for the signature of the king. His refusing to sign it prevents it from becoming a law. It rests with the governor to sign all bills pertaining to civic laws, schools, and churches, doctors and sanitary matters, municipalities, paupers, roads and postal matters, farming, fishing, commerce and shipping and local industries, domains, taxes, duties and moneys collected and all judicial matters excepting

those involving an appeal to the Supreme Court, which must be referred to Copenhagen.

For fifty years the people have been pleading, working, and fighting for absolute home

universal education of her people. Of the entire present population of seventy-eight thousand, there is not an individual among them (except idiots, of whom there are less than one hundred in the country) over six-

teen years of age, but can read and write and has some knowledge of arithmetic, history, and geography, and in addition, generally knows some English and Danish. The education is carried on in the homes. There are but few elementary schools, as nine tenths of the people live in



WOMEN STARTING ON A LONG JOURNEY.

rule. While the Constitution restored to them in '74 allowed them more liberties than are enjoyed by the king's subjects in his own country, yet the principle involved in the fact that this fine remnant of the old Norsemen⁸ should be held subject to a nation that is in many respects inferior to themselves is sorely galling to the doughty Iclander.

From the beginning Iceland's greatest glory has been the

the rural districts and are too widely scattered to admit of collecting the children into regular schools. In some districts there is an itinerant teacher to each parish, who



A TYPICAL FARMHOUSE.

"boards around" remaining with one family for a fortnight or a month and then moving on to the next. Frequently several families arrange to have their children move with the teacher, and take turns in housing the little flock. The work of the teacher, however, lies principally in outlining and defining a course of study. The real work of instruction is performed by the parents during the long winter evenings. Then the family surrounds the center table, a large kerosene lamp suspended from the ceiling and great chunks of burning peat ablaze upon the hearth rendering the room comfortable and attractive. The books are got out and several members of the family assume the duty of teachers. Meanwhile the women knit and spin, the men read, and the old folks as they sit with their feet to the fire hold the little children on their knees and weave yarns that greatly delight the imagination of the wee folks. All children are regularly examined by the pastor of the parish. Every child must possess an elementary education before being confirmed at about the age of fourteen, and as confirmation carries with it certain important civil rights the observance of this ceremony is rigidly practiced.

There are a number of high schools throughout the country; two ladies' seminaries, and what is known as the Latin School at Reykjavik, where the young men are given a five years' course in philosophy and the languages, preparatory to entering the university at Copenhagen. These schools all receive money appropriated by the government.

Colonized as Iceland was by people who were acquainted with whatever of refinement and learning the age they lived in was capable of supplying, it is not surprising that we should find its inhabitants, from the very infancy of the republic, endowed with an amount of intellectual energy hardly to be expected in so secluded a community. Perhaps it has been this very seclusion which stimulated into almost miraculous exuberance the mental powers already innate in the people. Undistracted during several successive centuries by bloody wars and still

more bloody political convulsions, which for too long a period rendered the sword of the warrior so much more important than the pen of the scholar, the Icelandic settlers, devoting the long leisure of their winters to intellectual occupations, became the first of any European nation to create for themselves a native literature. Almost all the ancient Scandinavian manuscripts are Icelandic; the negotiations between the Courts of the North were conducted by Icelandic diplomatists; the earliest topographical survey with which we are acquainted was Icelandic; the cosmogony⁹ of the Odin¹⁰ religion and its doctrinal traditions and rituals were reduced to a system by Icelandic archæologists; and the first historical composition ever written by any European in the vernacular, was the product of Icelandic genius. It is to Icelandic chronicles that we are indebted for the preservation of two of the most remarkable facts in the history of the world, namely the colonization of Greenland by Europeans in the tenth century and the discovery of America by the Icelanders at the commencement of the eleventh.

The story is rather curious and intensely interesting, but too lengthy for these columns. Suffice it to say that in the month of February, 1477, there arrived at Reykjavik in a bark belonging to the port of Bristol, a certain long-visaged, gray-eyed Genoese¹¹ mariner who took an amazing interest in hunting up whatever was known on the subject. Whether Columbus, for it was no less a personage than he, learned anything to confirm him in his noble resolutions is uncertain, but there is still extant a historical manuscript written one hundred years before Columbus' voyage, which contains a minute account of a certain person named Lief, who, while sailing to Greenland, was driven out of his course until he found himself by an extensive and unknown coast which increased in beauty and fertility as he descended south. From the description given of the scenery, products, and inhabitants, from the mildness of the weather and from the length of the day on the 21st of December, he may have descended as far south as Massachusetts.

After Lief's return successive expeditions were made to the same country. That the Icelanders have received so little credit for these discoveries is one of the injustices of history and is to be accounted for solely on the ground of their failing to reveal to other nations the knowledge in their possession, while Columbus hastened to spread the glad news to all the world.

During the five hundred and fifty years that Iceland was in bondage to Norway and Denmark the energies of her people became so benumbed as to cause them almost to lose their former mental vigor. But with the restoration of her Constitution in '74 dawned a new era. The people took heart of hope and the old Icelandic genius was in a measure revived. Since then many works of merit have been produced and the best writings of other nations have been translated into the native tongue, including Shakespeare, Byron, Milton, and Pope.

Eight general newspapers are published, besides a number of religious papers and one temperance paper. Of magazines there are three, namely, *Timarit*, published by the Icelandic Literary Society, *Andvari*, published by the National Patriotic Society, and *Eimreidin*, published in the interests of national progress.

The industries of the people are chiefly confined to fishing and farming. Six million pounds of codfish, seven thousand pounds of eider down, about five thousand head of ponies, and nearly one half million sheep make up the annual exports. Very little of the land is cultivated. Successive years of frost and rain have washed out furrows so deep that great humps stand out on the surface, which from a distance look like heaps of hay. From these the farmers literally shave, with short scythes, enough grass to feed their sheep and ponies during the winter months. Potatoes and a few other vegetables are raised, but the summer seasons are rarely long enough to ripen grain. All bread stuffs are imported.

At one time Iceland abounded with good timber, but at the present time trees are almost a curiosity. A few mountain-ash trees are found in the north and east, but the tall-

est tree in the country is scarcely thirty feet high. In many districts there is a low growth of birch saplings, which if protected from the sheep, would doubtless attain to a mature growth.

The houses are generally built of timber brought from Norway or of the turf which extends its roots into the ground from eighteen to twenty inches, and is so closely woven as to resemble thick felt. In the latter case the gables are likely to be of wood. The farmhouses are peculiar in that there are a number of small dwellings, one built against the other, with the gables all pointing in the same direction. These are connected on the inside by a common passageway.

Until ten years ago there were no bridges nor regularly made roads. Now there are a number of bridges, built according to the latest devices of engineering, and many miles of excellent road. The pony's back furnishes the only means of transportation; there are but one or two wagons in the country. These little creatures go from one end of the country to the other, sometimes bearing loads almost as large as themselves. They are remarkably tame and possess almost human intelligence. Next to kith and kin the Icelander loves his pony, and many are the tales related about the faithful service of these animals.

The Icelanders are of the Lutheran faith and though still retaining a few vestiges of the old Roman religion, such as the surplice, altars, candles, pictures, and crucifixes, they are stanch Protestants and the most loyal, innocent, pure-minded people in the world. Crime, theft, debauchery, and cruelty are almost unknown among them. It is entirely safe for any woman to ride unattended through the entire country, the lack of well defined roads being the only barrier.

In the manner of their lives there is something of the patriarchal simplicity that reminds one of the Old World princes, of whom it has been said that "they were upright and perfect, eschewing evil and in their hearts was no guile."

The language is singularly sweet and caressing and is the only pure remnant left of

the old Norse tongue as spoken throughout all Scandinavia a thousand years ago. The people are scarcely second to the Russians in linguistic ability, many of them speaking five and seven different languages.

To the botanist and geologist Iceland presents a peculiarly rich field. The flora is plentiful and varied. The mountains have many curious shapes and forms; the outburst of volcanic energy having occurred in closest contact with the realm of ice, bears evidence of frost and fire having grappled in sternest conflict. In some cases the nucleus in the basaltic mass alone remains and looks like monuments or cairns, and it is difficult to believe they are natural. Zeolites,¹² embedded in reddish clay, bits of agate and fragments of chalcedony,¹³ are a few of the treasures found strewn in the paths leading to the fjords.

Nothing can be more delightful than a horseback trip of eight hundred or a thousand miles through Iceland. The traveler

sees thousands of mountains covered with eternal snow outrivaling the Alps in grandeur; great geysers and innumerable hot wells; waterfalls, one of which—the Gullfoss—is second only to Niagara in size and beauty; crystal streams and dashing rivers, lava beds of fantastic figures, covered with moss that glistens in the sun like hoar frost; and as a crowning glory the atmosphere is so brilliant that objects eighty miles distant appear close at hand. The effects of light and shadow are the purest I have ever seen, and the contrast of color is truly astonishing: one square foot of a mountain juts out in a blaze of gold against the flank of another, dyed of the darkest purple, while up against the azure sky beyond rise peaks of glistening snow and ice.

If within the domain of nature such another region is to be found it must be in the heart of those solitudes which science is unveiling to us amid the untrodden fastnesses of the lunar mountains.

THE CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES.

BY PROFESSOR JOHN W. BURGESS, LL.D.

OF COLUMBIA COLLEGE.

PART II.

THE PERIOD OF THE CONFEDERATION AND THE CONVENTION OF 1787.

NATURALLY the strain came first upon the Confederate system as a government. The search for the sovereignty in it, by whose action its defects as government might be remedied, came later.

The French had already before its inauguration virtually taken the war with the motherland off our hands, and the Continental executive, the commander-in-chief of the army, was still in power after 1781 as before. Consequently the weakness of the Confederate government did not appear so manifest between 1781 and 1783 as after the conclusion of the peace, the withdrawal of the French soldiers, and the retirement of Washington. Its utter incapacity was then quickly demonstrated in every direction.

It could not execute its own treaty with Great Britain and secure the removal of the British troops from the western posts. It could not secure treaties of commerce with foreign states. It could not establish an army or a navy. It could not defend the commerce of the Mississippi against the exactions of the Spaniards at its mouth. It could not aid in the suppression of internal disorder and insurrection. It could not raise money to pay the pensions of the soldiers, nor the interest on the debt, nor even the ordinary expenses of government.

The statesmen thought to be able to remedy its defects by amending the Constitution so as to increase the powers of the Confederate government, *i. e.* the Confederate Congress, but every time they made the attempt they ran against the provision of that Constitution which ordained that no alteration could be made in it except by consent

of the legislature of each and every state, and against the fact that nothing could be proposed to which the legislatures of all the states would agree. The fundamental falsehood of the Confederate system was thus at last revealed: *The states had severally usurped in and through it the sovereignty of the nation, and there was no practicable legal method of wrenching it from them.*

There was but one alternative to ultimate dissolution, and that was to ignore the Confederate Constitution in undertaking the reform of the political system, and to go back to the national sovereignty, the American state, upon which to rest the undertaking; but that would be revolution again. This was a serious consideration. The setting aside of the newly established legality and the return to the confusion and uncertainty of revolutionary conditions would of course be attended with great and varied dangers, dangers which were overwhelmingly appalling to ordinary minds. Happily for America there were some minds among her statesmen strong and prescient enough to perceive that the dangers which were being incurred by remaining inert in the midst of growing impotence would prove far more serious, in the long run, than such as might be occasioned by the momentary confusion of a new internal revolution. Chief among these were the far-sighted resolute governor of Massachusetts, who was already beginning to have experience with that spirit of lawlessness leading to the Shay's Rebellion, which furnished such convincing evidence of the impotence of the whole governmental system under the confederacy, James Bowdoin,¹ and the wise, brilliant and politic Hamilton.

Bowdoin struck right out in the most open and straightforward manner. In May of 1785, he recommended the Massachusetts legislature to instruct the delegates sent by that body to the Confederate Congress to move in the Congress the call of a national convention for the work of revising the Confederate Constitution. The legislature followed his advice, but the delegates sent by it to the Confederate Congress did not and would not make the proposition to the Congress, so certain were they of its defeat, and,

it was thought, so opposed to it were they themselves.

Events were, however, shaping themselves favorably to the nationalists, if they would only have the astuteness to take advantage of them. Already more than a month before Bowdoin made his recommendation of a national convention, commissioners appointed by the legislatures of Virginia and Maryland had met at Alexandria for the purpose of fixing the relations of these two states in regard to the navigation of the waters lying between them. They soon came to the conclusion that the regulation of commerce between Virginia and Maryland in these waters involved the wider question of the commerce of all the states therein. They reported this conclusion to the respective legislatures which had sent them, and thereupon the Virginia legislature issued an invitation to the legislatures of all the other states of the confederacy to send commissioners to a commercial convention, to be assembled at Annapolis in September of 1786. Hamilton immediately conceived the idea of securing his own election as a delegate from New York, and of persuading this commercial convention to expand itself into a constitutional convention. He expected to accomplish this by demonstrating to the convention that the successful regulation of interstate commerce by the Confederate government would require a complete change in the organization and powers of that government. He was chosen a delegate by the legislature of New York, and went hopefully forward upon his mission. Upon his arrival at Annapolis he found representatives from only five states in the convention, and no more appeared.

Hamilton saw that it would be useless to attempt the realization of his plan in so small a body. It seemed useless to undertake even the consideration of the commercial question. He could, however, demonstrate to this body the fact that, under the existing form and powers of the Confederate government, no satisfactory regulation of commerce between the states could be attained, and he could make use of the convention by securing from it a recommendation

to the legislatures of all the states for the assembling of a constitutional convention. He was successful in both of these things, but he was obliged to proceed with great caution in regard to the latter. He did not venture to attribute to any such convention the power to revise the Confederate Constitution. He knew that it would have no such legal power. That belonged, by the principles of existing law, to the state legislatures in unanimous action. It was difficult for him to find any legal position whatsoever for such a convention, since, according to existing law, only the Confederate Congress was vested with the power of even proposing alterations in the Confederate Articles. If the convention could legally be neither a proposing, nor a ratifying or resolving, body, what could it be?

Hamilton found it thus necessary to cut the knot at the outset which he could not untie. He did it, however, with great cleverness. He so worded his motion as to conceal, whether intentionally or not, its real effect. He proposed that the commercial convention should recommend to the legislatures of the states represented therein that they should join among themselves, and procure the concurrence of all the other states, in calling, and choosing delegates to, a constitutional convention, "to take into consideration the situation of the United States, to devise such further provisions as shall appear to them necessary to render the constitution of the Federal government adequate to the exigencies of the Union; and to report such an act for that purpose to the United States in Congress assembled," *i. e.* to the Confederate Congress, "as, when agreed to by them" *i. e.* the Congress, "and afterwards confirmed by the legislature of every state will effectually provide for the same."

It is thought that Hamilton's caution was occasioned by the attitude of Edmund Randolph in the convention. That, however, is of little importance to us in this study. The thing of significance to us is that Hamilton proposed, at this juncture, a method for altering the Confederate Constitution which would maintain the legal connection between

the existing system and whatsoever changes might be made in it. The recommendation went in this form from the Annapolis convention to the legislatures of the state, and was discussed therein, and in the press, and by the people, with the understanding that whatever the constitutional convention might propose must receive the assent both of the Confederate Congress and of the legislature of every state for its adoption.

Even with this understanding the proposition seemed on the point of failure, when Hamilton secured from the legislature of New York instructions to the delegates appointed by that body to the Confederate Congress to move and support, in the Congress, a recommendation by that body to the several state legislatures for the assembly of the constitutional convention of the United States. The New York delegates followed the instructions of their state legislature, and, by the aid of the Massachusetts delegates in the Congress, secured the passage of a proposition by the Congress recommending the assembly of the convention, which was, however, rather the Massachusetts proposition than the one offered by the New Yorkers.

The resolution of the Congress was passed on February 21, 1787, and was expressed in the following language:

"That, in the opinion of Congress, it is expedient that, on the second Monday in May next, a convention of delegates, who shall have been appointed by the several states, be held at Philadelphia, for the sole and express purpose of revising the Articles of Confederation, and reporting to Congress and the several legislatures such alterations and provisions therein as shall, when agreed to in Congress and confirmed by the states, render the Federal Constitution adequate to the exigencies of government and the preservation of the Union."

There are certainly some departures in this language from what has been employed before this in regard to this subject. Instead of reading, "when agreed to by Congress and afterwards confirmed by the legislature of every state," it read, "confirmed by the states"; and instead of reading, "render the Articles of Confederation," it read, "render the Federal Constitution." Still, I hardly think that these changes in the expression

are sufficient to indicate that Congress contemplated any departure from the letter of the law of the Confederate Constitution in making alterations in the existing system, further than that of allowing a constitutional convention to propose these changes, instead of holding exclusively to that power for itself. In fact the Congress had voted the proposition of the Massachusetts delegates in preference to that of the New York delegates, because it thought that the proposition of the New Yorkers was so worded as to admit of a departure from the law of amendment contained in the existing constitution.

The recommendation of the Congress settled the question of the assembly of the convention. All the state legislatures, except the legislature of Rhode Island, chose delegates, and, in May of 1787, the persons so selected met at Philadelphia to undertake their great work. There is no question that they were the natural leaders of the nation. The chiefs among them, if any distinction can be made when all were chiefs, were Washington, Hamilton, Madison, Franklin, King, Gorham, Pinckney, the Morrisises, Randolph, Livingston, Ellsworth, Wilson, Luther Martin, Rutledge, and Sherman. They closed their doors upon the curiosity and criticisms of the public, put Washington in the presidential chair, and adopted the rule of a simple majority of the states for the passage of propositions.

Two things were manifest to them at the outset. The first was, that what they wanted was an entirely new constitution and not any amendment at all of the existing system. The second was, that the method prescribed in the existing constitution for making constitutional changes could not be successfully employed for the adoption of what they might propose, since the attitude of Rhode Island alone could, and undoubtedly would, negative any proposition they might make. To small minds, this obstacle would have appeared insuperable, but the master minds in this convention had all along anticipated something of this nature and were prepared for it. What they actually did was to ignore the Confederate instrument altogether,

frame an entirely new constitution of an entirely different character, and ordain new organs and a different majority for its adoption. In the order of our treatment the last point comes logically first.

Instead of reporting amendments of the Articles of Confederation to the Confederate Congress for approval by that body, and transmission by it to the legislatures of the states to be finally ratified by them if unani- mously favorable, or rejected if a single one of them was unfavorable, as the Confederate Constitution, the law of the land, required, they drafted, as I have said, an entirely new organic law as a substitute for the Confederate Constitution, sent it to the Confederate Congress with the direction, expressed in terms of advice indeed, that the Congress should pass it along untouched to the legislatures of the states, and that the legislatures of the states should pass it along untouched to conventions of the people assembled in each state for the sole and express purpose of considering and deciding upon it; and, most significant of all, they wrote into the draft itself the most fundamental order that the ratification of the draft by conventions of the people in nine states should be sufficient to establish it as constitutional law between those nine. Madison was at the moment the leader in the Confederate Congress and he influenced the Congress to acquiesce in the direction of the convention. On September 28, 1787, the Congress resolved "that the said report with the resolutions accompanying the same," *i. e.*, the constitution drafted by the convention, "be transmitted to the several legislatures, in order to be submitted to a convention of delegates chosen in each state by the people thereof, in conformity to the resolves of the convention made and provided in that case."

The state legislatures, with the exception of the legislature of Rhode Island, all followed the directions of the convention and transmitted the draft to conventions of delegates elected by the people in each state for the purpose of approving or disapproving the same. The legislature of Rhode Island sent it to the people in their town meetings.

When the ratifying action of the ninth convention was reported to the Confederate Congress, that body proceeded to frame an enactment for putting the new governmental machinery, provided in the new constitution, into operation. It called for the election of representatives and senators and of presidential electors as provided in the new constitution, indicated the method for counting the vote of the electors for the president, and fixed the day for the new government to enter upon the exercise of its authority. Before this enactment was finally passed by the Confederate Congress two more conventions within the states had notified their ratification of the new constitution to Congress. The act was passed when conventions in but eleven states had ratified the work of the general convention, and the new government went into operation under the same conditions. The convention in North Carolina had adjourned without ratifying or rejecting, and the people in their town meetings in Rhode Island had rejected the proposed constitution.

Such were the facts; now for the scientific appreciation of them. My contention is that these facts prove that the Constitution of 1787 did not proceed *legally* out of the Confederate Constitution, that there was no *legal* connection at all between the two, and that therefore the Constitution of 1787 was a revolutionary product, was based upon the reorganized American state, the reorganized national sovereignty, reorganized, too, not by any legal act of the Confederate Congress or of the legislatures of the states, but by a usurpation, which, because of its truthfulness to natural conditions and its permanent success, we term a revolution.

It would have certainly been an entirely legal procedure for the Confederate Congress to have proposed to the state legislatures to so amend the provision in the Confederate Constitution for altering that instrument as to substitute for the initiation of the changes by the Congress itself, and their ratification by the state legislatures, and unanimity in the ratifying act of the legislatures, initiation by a general convention, and ratification by conventions within the

states, and adoption by the ratifying act of nine conventions; and then, after the state legislatures had unanimously adopted this change in the Confederate Constitution, to have submitted the newly proposed constitution for ratification according to the newly established method, for then the newly established method would have been a regular part of the Confederate Constitution.

But nothing of this sort was done or suggested. Even if it should be claimed that the Confederate Congress and the state legislatures impliedly did this when they transmitted the draft of the new constitution, according to the directions of the general convention, to a convention of the people within each state, it can be answered that one state legislature did not do this, viz., that of Rhode Island, but sent it to the town meetings. The Confederate Constitution, as we have seen again and again in the course of this discussion, required the agreement of the legislature of each and every state to the same thing in order to its adoption as a part of the Confederate Constitution.

Both from a scientific and a legal point of view we must give up the attempt to trace the Constitution of 1787 from the Confederate system. We must confess that the Confederate system was a failure in philosophy as well as in fact, that it was an erroneous interpretation of existing conditions and relations, that to relieve themselves of it the framers of the system of 1787 were compelled to go back to the revolutionary foundation, and reorganize the American state, the national sovereignty, in the general convention, which body assumed constituent powers when it designated the bodies upon whose ratifications the constitution proposed by it should become the supreme law of the land, and fixed the majority sufficient to accomplish this result. In a word, the Constitution of 1787 was the first real and successful legal system produced by the revolution, the first real approach to the natural conditions and relations of the country and the people, the first truthful interpretation of the principles of American political sociology. The Con-

federate system and period were a hiatus³ of error, confusion, and misfortune. So far as the history of the legal continuity of our political institutions is concerned, they must be counted out. We must set the system of 1787 squarely upon its natural revolutionary basis and interpret the provisions of the new Constitution by the historical nature of its genesis and not by the spurious jurisprudence of the Confederate system.

But what now were the relations of North Carolina and Rhode Island to the other members of the old Confederation? Did it still exist as to them? Or were they now separate and sovereign states? Or were they really subject to the new system despite their own action or want of action? Legally the Articles of Confederation were perpetual and no alteration could be made in them, unless voted by the legislature of each and every state. Legally the Confederate Constitution still remained, with North Carolina and Rhode Island loyal to it, and all the rest in rebellion. As a fact, however, it had been destroyed by the act of the general convention, ratified by the approval of conventions in eleven states, its government had abdicated and disappeared, the government provided in the new Constitution was in full and unobstructed operation, and in the public opinion North Carolina and Rhode Island were in a state of rebellion, or quasi⁴ rebellion against the Union. From the point of view of a sound political science, also, this was the condition of these two recusant⁴ commonwealths. There was no legal right of the secession of a state from the Union under the Confederate system. The eleven states now consciously under the new system had no conception that they had seceded from the Union. The intention and the undoubted result of the whole movement had been to consolidate the Union.

In a sound political science destruction is permissible only for clearing the ground for a better construction. In political science the same principle which justified the destruction of the Confederate system for the whole thirteen by the act of nine or eleven required also the establishment of the new system for the whole thirteen, and authorized it by the act of the same majority in the one case as in the other. That principle is the original, revolutionary, sovereign right of the undoubted majority of the political people of any natural political unity to act for the whole people inhabiting that unity in the construction as well as in the destruction of their political institution.

This is no dangerous doctrine. It does not favor the use of the revolutionary method instead of regular legal methods in changing existing relations. It only claims that where recourse is had to revolution to destroy, the purpose and the result of the movement must be to construct a better order for all involved in the destruction of the old relations. It is thus a conservative principle, and makes the recourse to revolution a procedure of the very last resort. The leading minds in North Carolina and Rhode Island quickly recognized the peril of their position. The legislatures of these states enacted revenue laws identical with those passed by the new general government and ordered the proceeds from them to be paid into the treasury of the United States, and prayed the United States government not to treat them as foreign states. The convention in North Carolina soon reassembled, and a convention in Rhode Island was called, and before the middle of the year 1790 both of these bodies had declared their approval of the new Constitution and their obedience to the new government established by it.

End

THE INTELLECTUAL LIFE OF THE AMERICAN PEOPLE.

BY PRESIDENT CHARLES F. THWING.

OF WESTERN RESERVE UNIVERSITY AND ADELBERT COLLEGE.

THE intellectual life of the American people is a life of intellectual curiosity, intellectual activity, and intellectual breadth. It is not a life of intellectual profundity. It is yet, on the whole, the most intellectual life lived by any people. It lacks, however, the highest relations of scholarship possessed by the learned German, and is remote from the nobler domains of culture in which the best Englishman is at home. But, taken people for people, the average height and breadth and depth of the intellectual life of the American people is higher, broader, and deeper than of any other. A people, too, that has in a hundred years given to itself and to civilization our greatest men has certainly approached, even if it has not touched, the peaks of intellectual greatness. A nation which has given to law and jurisprudence Marshall and Jay and David Dudley Field, to education Horace Mann and Hopkins, to government Washington and Lincoln, to generalship Grant and Lee, to romance Hawthorne and Cooper, to poetry Lowell and Longfellow and their associates, to philosophy Emerson, to preaching Brooks and Beecher, to statesmanship Webster, to finance Gallatin and Chase, to history Prescott and Parkman and Motley, to science Agassiz, Gray, Henry, and Dana, to diplomacy the Adamses and Jefferson, to architecture Richardson, to the newspaper Greeley, to practical common sense Franklin, and to reformation Garrison and his associates, is a nation which may justly claim that its illustrious ones deserve to be numbered with the immortals of any people.

I am, however, guilty of vagueness in some degree. I shall, therefore, limit this theme to the intellectual life as it is manifested in and through the American college; and in particular I hope to show that,

tested by the number of students in our colleges and tested by the character of the course of study, the intellectual life of the American people at the present time is richer and more general than at any other period.

One cannot forget that among the 21,000 people who between 1620 and 1640 populated New England and among their descendants for the following fifty years, there were as many graduates of Cambridge and of Oxford as could be found in any population of similar size in the mother country. At one time of this period in Massachusetts and Connecticut every group of two hundred and fifty people had one graduate of old Cambridge. In addition to the Cambridge graduates there were also several from Oxford. It is probable that the influence of men learned in the things of the college was never so great in America as in the first half century of the settlement of the Bay Colony.¹

The proportion of college men found in the colonies in the last years of the seventeenth and throughout the eighteenth century is largely a matter of conjecture, for the population itself is a matter of conjecture. The first census was taken in 1790. Although Bancroft has devoted much space to the consideration of the population at different periods, yet the results reached are simply estimates. In order, therefore, to reduce the question in hand to very definite and simple limits, I shall compare the population and students of 1830 and 1831 with the population and students of 1890 and 1891.

The former date represents the beginning of a very interesting period in American education, for the fourth decade of this century was the great awakening in educational affairs. It was the decade in which more colleges were founded—twenty-five—than were founded in all the three previous decades, among them being the University

of Michigan. At that time the United States had forty-six colleges and the population was 12,866,020 persons. The number of students in forty of these forty-six colleges was 3,582. The number of students in the remaining six colleges was not reported and it is now impossible to secure. But it is not unjust to estimate the whole number of college students in this country at the beginning of the fourth decade as 4,000. There were therefore 3,216 persons for each college student.

We are constantly blaming ourselves for the attitude in which we use the word college. We are, however, less blameworthy than the people of old England, although blameworthy enough. In the varying breadth with which the term is used we find the number of colleges in the United States a variable quantity. Three hundred and sixty-one colleges make full reports to the Commissioner of Education, and therefore it may be just to take this number as a basis of comparison. In these colleges are 46,474 students. The population according to the last census was 62,622,250 persons. There are, therefore, now 1,347 persons to each college student. We now have more than twice the number of students to each person of the population that we had two generations ago. The proportion in the different states in these two periods is certainly significant. In Maine in 1830 there were 2,330 persons to each student; in Maine now, there are 1,294 persons to each student. In New Hampshire in 1830 there were 1,756 persons to each student. In New Hampshire now there are 1,034. In Vermont in 1830 there were 1,696 persons to each student; in Vermont now there are 1,433. In Massachusetts in 1830 there were 895 persons to each student; in Massachusetts now there are 501. In Rhode Island in 1830 there were 2,442 persons to each student; in Rhode Island now there are 857. In Connecticut in 1830 there were 1,340 persons to each student; in Connecticut now there are 421. In New York in 1830 there were 2,496; in New York now there are 1,149. The general summaries are, in New England in 1830 there were

1,231 persons to each student; in the four Middle States there were 3,465 to each student. Now in these same states there are 1,001 persons to each student. In 1830 in six southern states including the District of Columbia there were 7,232 persons to each student. Now in what are called the South Atlantic States there are 1,874 persons to each student, and in the south central division there are to each student 1,908 persons. In 1830 in eight western states there were 6,060 persons to each student. Now in the northern central division there are 1,333 persons to each student and in the western division there are 1,640.

It is not a little difficult to point out the significance of these proportions. In 1830 the population of this country was small, under thirteen millions of people. Sixty years later the population of this country was somewhat over sixty millions. That is to say, the population of the country was four and one-half times as large in 1890 as it was in 1830, but the number of college students was more than ten times as large.

It is to be said that in these 46,000 students are included a few professional students and also certain women, for certain colleges so report their students that it is impossible to distinguish the professional from the undergraduate member. This same fact was true though to a less extent in 1830. But among the students of sixty years ago there were few women. At the present time among these three hundred and sixty-one colleges are co-educational institutions. In the estimate, however, are included no women who are members of colleges designed for women alone and the number of women who are in colleges for themselves only far exceeds the number found in co-educational colleges.

It is also to be said that sixty years ago there were no technological schools. The school of technology does not give a liberal education, but it does give an education having certain liberal elements, and in estimating the number of well-trained men in the country, a certain proportion of the graduates of the better scientific schools

should be included. When these facts are taken into view it becomes yet more evident that the proportion of educated men in the community is even greater than the absolute figures before given would indicate. In a word, that the influence of the American college has enlarged, does meet the mathematical test. The American college has more than twice as many graduates now in proportion to the people as it had two generations ago.

Such a result is to be expected. The first attention of a new people must be given to material things. Forests are to be felled and turned into houses; soil must be broken and crops sown and harvested; streams dammed and bridged; mills of every kind built; roads made,—all material values to be increased, and all utilities to be created and augmented. Physical conditions are to be first consulted and physical life promoted. The consequent attention is given to things of the mind. The college follows the factory, the dormitory follows the family home. The smallest proportion of college men to the population is found among the newer or newest states, and the largest among the oldest. New York and Massachusetts have more students than any other state, the former 5,220, and the later 4,469. We cannot forget that not a few of the newer states have followed the example set by Massachusetts of founding a college within its first score of years. Ohio was admitted to the Union in 1802 and within the next twenty-five years Ohio had established four colleges, one founded the very year of the admission of the state. Illinois became a state in 1818 and the college which bears its name was chartered in 1835, and in the same fourth decade were founded several other colleges. The history of the American commonwealth and of American education is simply the history of the application of the principle that material things precede the intellectual. We are therefore to expect that the proportion of well-trained men in the community will increase with the age of the community.

One, furthermore, is in no danger of forgetting that the equality of the education which the American college gives has improved

quite as conspicuously as the proportion of students has increased. I am inclined to believe that the best college of sixty years ago failed to give so good an education as the ordinary college now gives. The chief difference lies in the paucity of the subjects of instruction. There lies before me a statement of the courses of study in no less than twenty-one colleges. They might be called the leading colleges of the beginning of the fourth decade. I select for comparison a college giving presumptively the best course of study at that time. And what were the studies in the four years at Yale in 1830? In the Freshman year, Livy, Horace, "*Græca Majora*," Homer, Cicero de Oratore,³ Latin composition, Roman antiquities, and ancient geography; in mathematics the studies were arithmetic, algebra, and Euclid.⁴ In the Sophomore year, Horace, Cicero, and the Greek continued; geometry was begun as was also rhetoric; there was also the use of a text-book in mathematics by Day. In the Junior year Latin was continued as was also Greek; natural philosophy was begun, also astronomy, together with logic and history, and mathematics is represented by Fluxions.⁵ The Junior year offered a choice, too, among Hebrew, Spanish, and French. In the Senior year the studies were rhetoric, natural theology, Stewart's philosophy, Paley's "*Moral Philosophy*," Paley's "*Evidences*,"⁶ political economy, and Greek and Latin. I might give a similar statement regarding many colleges, but from one—and that possibly the best of that time—we can learn all. Yes, the ordinary college of to-day is giving a course of instruction richer and in every way better than that which Yale offered in 1830.

It is also to be acknowledged that the worth of a college consists quite as much in the teacher as in the teaching, and it is to be said, and said with gratitude, that there were great teachers in the former time in the smaller colleges, such as Bowdoin. One needs only to read a dozen pages of Bowdoin's history to know that Cleveland, Newman, Upham, Packard, Smyth, had for half a century an influence over Bowdoin students

as great as any body of teachers ever possessed over their students.

A strong man, whatever be the subject he teaches and whether his range of knowledge be wide, only provided it considerably exceeds that of the body of students whom he instructs, will always and everywhere be an educational force among the men who gather in his class room. Personality is the greatest force. But it is also to be said that there are giants in these days. Teachers are as great as they were in the former time. The educational value of the college as embodied in its teachers is certainly as great now as it was. If personality itself is no stronger than it was, it is true that teachers are, as teachers, far better qualified for their work. Men are no longer taken from the pastorate to teach Latin or Philosophy. In 1873 in ten selected colleges, forty per cent of the teachers were not specially trained; in 1893 in the same colleges only twenty-five per cent were not specially trained.* Men are no longer drafted from the graduating class to become the instructors of the Freshman class. No worthy college, as a rule, employs other than experts as teachers. The influence, therefore, of the American college is not only enlarging, it is also deepening and strengthening.

The result on the community of the presence of an increasing proportion of college bred men is of the largest significance. These men belong to every rank of the social order and to every condition of life.

* Education, Vol. XV., p. 56.

They represent a higher civilization also and their presence tends yet further to ennoble civilization. The men are the prophecy of the rule of a genuine aristocracy in a democracy; for the people themselves are becoming the best. They suggest a sympathy more extended as well as more profound between social classes, for they indicate the possession of a stronger power as well as of a wiser wisdom on the part of the strong and wise to bless the weak and the ignorant.

The American college, therefore, represents the enlarged and enlarging intellectual life of the American people. It has helped to train one third of all our statesmen; more than a third of our best authors; almost a half of our more distinguished physicians; fully one half of our better known lawyers; more than a half of our best clergymen, and considerably more than half of our most conspicuous educators. It has thus entered into all the intellectual life of all the people. It has, above every other force, tended to raise the intellectual level of all the people to a higher point than that reached elsewhere. The intellectual life has thus secured breadth and variety and richness. Curiosity has been stimulated and mental activity quickened. The common school has gained in dignity and inspiring power. Books have become more common and better. Scholarly ideals have been upheld. "Things of the mind," in the judgment of the better American, have come to be of the highest worth; and the value set upon them in his mental price-list increases with each passing year.

SUNDAY READINGS.

SELECTED BY BISHOP VINCENT.

[December 1.]

BUT now we come to the second class of explanations. "Feeling," said the only theologian to whom I shall here allude, though he was quite as much a philosopher as any member of the band, "Feeling is the source of religion, a feeling of dependence." Now, you will note, a feeling of dependence is a thought of dependence. I cannot feel

that I depend on anything or anyone unless I think of myself as dependent. Without thought of the Independent upon Whom the dependent self depends, no feeling of dependence is possible. Thought is contained in feeling. But another and specifically English thinker, with a similar idea, but, as it were, differently complexioned, has attempted to reconcile science and religion on

the basis that worship, which is the essential element in religion, is feeling, the feeling of admiration. To admire is to worship; to worship is to be religious. But now, you cannot have admiration unless you have found something admirable; and if you have found something admirable, you have conceived it, you have thought it: you cannot have admiration without thought. Lastly, in this connection, there comes that intellectually wise man, Mr. Herbert Spencer, who says, "Religion is a feeling, a feeling of wonder, a feeling of wonder in the presence of the Unknown." Now I don't wonder at his thinking wonder the root and essence of religion. I would have wondered exceedingly had he thought otherwise. It would be altogether inexplicable were a man to think that any other emotion whatever could be excited by the great Unknown. It is no extraordinary thing that a man who translates the Unknown by force, persistent force, should think that wonder was the one fit feeling, the feeling in any way proper to religion, that could arise in its presence. But you see he does not get his feeling till he has got his thought; you must conceive that the Unknown is before you can wonder at it.

Well, let us dismiss feeling as by itself, in any sense or degree, an adequate explanation of either the origin or nature of religion. All feeling means thought; you cannot feel unless you think; and you feel as you think. Man thinks; as he thinks, he feels, as he thinks and feels, he acts. Thought is the parent, determinative of feeling; feeling is the source of the motive which impels to act—that is, is the occasion of action, not its cause.

Well, when we analyze this subjective definition, what do we find? That religion is, on the side of the person, his thought of the cause, or order, or highest law under which he stands, and the way in which he feels and acts towards him or it. That is a very wide definition, for this reason: that it must comprehend all forms of religious expression or life that we may discover to exist.

[December 8.]

Now, when we have got a notion of reli-

gion on the subjective side, we want another of it on the objective.

1. Looking, then, at religion on the objective side, we may say that the highest conception which a religion possesses determines its moral character. As is the deity, such must the faith that is built on him be. Find out then the character of the deity, and you find out the character of the religion. In other words, discover the quality of a man's highest thought, and you discover the character and quality of the principles that regulate his whole life. That is absolutely true. You may take it of religion; you may take it of any intellectual system. Suppose, for example, that a man declares force to be the ultimate, or the only known ultimate of ultimates, how would it affect his notion of life and the law that governs conduct? Force, according to its very idea, must exact in every change an equivalent for what is expended. Wherever force rules, the laws of mechanics rule, wherever the laws of mechanics rule, necessity rules; wherever necessity rules, freedom is absent; wherever freedom is absent, morality is impossible; wherever morality is impossible, duty is impossible, and all the varieties of service into which and through which a noble and ordered society can be constructed. The highest conception thus determines the whole order of thought.

2. But if you apply the principle, as is the highest thought so is the system, to religion, you get this conclusion: if you have a God absolutely righteous, absolutely holy, absolutely loving, all the system He creates or builds must be intended to conform to Him. But, simply because He is so spiritual and moral, its absolute conformity cannot be secured by any mechanical method. If it were made conformable by a mechanical method, this would mean that it was done by necessity, and necessity destroys morality. While God is the great determinative idea of religion, religion itself must always be realized through man,—man free, rational, intelligent. Man stands open to God, God speaks through man. The pure in soul see and hear Him. Did you ever hear an oratorio?

Who made it? Nature never made it, nor could she by herself alone take one step toward its making. Yet nature to the susceptible ear is full of sounds, soft, loud, low, sweet, murmuring, gentle, varied, is a very orchestra of musical, rhythmical sounds; and the master spirit gathers into his vast imagination all these sounds, weaves them into splendid harmonies, and pours them out in the great organ swell, or the vast choir made of human beings, who yet make music as if they were one. And so the spirit open to God, God's true prophet, is the great master spirit telling the truth of God for the joy and the life of men.

3. But this brings us to a third position. Since religion, while it comes from God, is yet realized through men, it is realized for the purposes of God. It exists for His ends, and for these alone. Now, in looking at it as a great agent for carrying out God's purposes, what do we see? Two things. First, religion has a power that nothing else has of making bad men good. There is no power like it for changing bad into good, the profane into the holy, the man unreal into the man most true. Science has not that power, nor has art. Science and art witness to the elevation of man; they do not cause it. Religion causes the elevation of man, and creates his science and his art. Secondly, the progress, the forward movement of the race of man, has been worked by good persons, persons made good by their religious ideas. That is an absolute law. It is only the good person that can create really good things; and so we may add, wherever you have persons, whether inside or outside Christianity, that lift men up, and send men forward, you find them persons inspired by religious ideas.

[December 15.]

And now we must from these positions draw what may be termed a provisional conclusion: since the great forward movement of the world is worked by religious persons, then the higher their thought the greater and more beneficent their power; the purer the idea that works in them and through them, the greater and grander will be the religion. I will not by comparison run through Brah-

manism, through Buddhism, through Islam, through Egypt, through Greece; I will not try by comparison to show where this grandest idea is. But I will ask you to think of God as the Savior has taught us to think of Him, and then see how this bears on action. He is not only almighty, but He is good, holy, wise, loving, tender, compassionate, just. Take for example: God is a being infinitely good; then He cannot but hate sin, He cannot but hate all conscious and voluntary guilt; but if God hates sin, the religious man, governed by his idea of God, hates it too, and lives that he may end its reign on earth. God is righteous. Then if He is righteous, He cannot but hate wrong; all forms of wrong, personal, social, industrial, political, are hateful to Him; and the man who is a religious man, governed by his thought of God, must live to conquer wrong. God is tender, compassionate; then all sorrow, all pain, and all anguish are to Him painful, the cause of deepest pity and regret; and the religious man lives to overcome all pain, to subdue it, to minister to it; to take the outcast, and the lonely, and the feeble, and the desolate into the protection of his great pity. God is love; then He loves to see man saved, to see him happy, to see happiness multiplied below; and so the religious man is the man who saves men, who creates happiness, who makes all earth a scene of wider joy and of grander moral worth. Theology is the interpretation of the universe through the idea of God. Religion is the regulation of life through the same great idea; it is the application to all things, and all events, of the great, spiritual, moral, ethical, rational elements contained in that idea.

But mark this: religion has become no simple way of merely saving men; it saves them—but for God's ends, not simply their own. It is no mere method for giving peace in death, or a happy immortality; it accomplishes that by making time happy, and a happy society. Religion is in order that eternal justice, eternal holiness, eternal purity, eternal harmony, eternal love may, through man, be made everywhere to reign among men. Religion is that the purpose of

God through all the ages may by men be more perfectly fulfilled. Where it comes in its perfection, it comes for ends like these. If religion be this, where is the man who would not be religious?—and religious that he may serve God and work the good of man.

[December 22.]

1. If we are to understand the significance of the New Testament for our discussion, we must come to it with open spirit, and look at its idea of religion as embodied in its great Personality. In other words, we must seek to understand its idea through Christ. Now His life was one of very remarkable simplicity, and one of still more remarkable significance. It was altogether, from the religious point of view, unlike the ideal that had become traditional in Israel. The traditional ideal in Christ's day, the period of decadence, was twofold, there was the priest's, and there was the scribe's. The priest's idea was—the temple, the worship, the priesthood are the religion. God dwells in the temple; He is approached through His priesthood, He is appeased by their sacrifices, and the most pious man is the man who most often visits the temple, uses the priesthood, offers the costliest and greatest oblations. The idea of the scribe was different, yet akin. It was an ideal of forms, full of fasts and holy days, formulas and prayers, positions and phylacteries, reading of Scriptures and general performance of things by rule. In short, it was men living by rote, according to the fashion of the fathers or the times.

These, then, were the traditional ideals, religion as materialized and depraved by priest and scribe. Now Christ's ideal was essentially different. The priests could not understand a person preëminent in religion, who would not, and did not, frequent the temple according to rule and routine and season, and use the sacrifices. With the scribes, again, He was in ceaseless collision about their weightiest matters of the law, their solemn days, their fasts, their feasts, their periods of prayer, their tithing mint, anise, and cummin, about the formal ways, all so little, yet all so burdensome, in which they

thought to do religious work. He was too elevated to be understood of them, and so was misunderstood in the gravest degree, and to the most disastrous results. Not to fulfill their ideal was to be worthy of the cross.

2. But while his ideal stood in opposition to theirs, see how noble it looks by the contrast. He was the Son of Man and the Son of God. He felt at all times at home with God; He lived in God, God lived in Him; men felt in His presence as in the presence of the Father, because in the presence of the only begotten Son. And, note, when He became religiously active, what He did, and where He was found. Not in the temple, but in the highway, where disease was to be cured; in the home where wisdom was to be taught; on the sea, and by the shore, where men were prepared to listen; at the receipt of custom, or in the haunts of the outcast, where men were waiting to be saved; there, where He could best bring to lost men the great message of life, there was He found. And, high though He seemed, He gave to no man the sense that He condescended; great though His acts were, His condescension was never conscious. What He did was through the gracious and sweet compulsion of a true and holy love. He changed the sense of sin in the outcast into the sense of sonship, the being beloved of the Father and the Son. He loved love into being, and commanded by the love He begot. And so the ideal of religion He realized was altogether new; it needed for its being no priest, no scribe, no temple, save the temple of a pure and true spirit and the presence of a loving God, no order consecrated and set apart to sacerdotal functions and ceremonious duties, but only the consecrated spirit of the child face to face with the Father.

[December 29.]

As His religion was in deed, so in word. What He lived He taught. What He taught He lived. Many remarkable elements about that teaching might here be summarized and described, strange, remarkable elements, too. When He wishes to impress great

duties upon men, how does He do it? By parable. And when He uses the parable to enforce the highest duty man owes to man, where does He get His example, His impersonation of love? In the priest and the Levite? Nay, in the man they held to be unclean and an outcast, the Samaritan. When He wishes to find the qualities He most praises, where does He find them? Not in the old conventional ideal, but in the pure in heart, the peacemaker, the lover of righteousness, the sufferer, the man that mourns. They are the blessed, and if He wishes to describe the supreme law of God, He finds it in two things, love to God in heaven, love to man on earth. Nay, more, He so combines these, as to make each involve the other, as if He meant to say, where perfect love is to God, there will perfect love be to man, and where love to man, there all the duties God requires will be fulfilled.

But observe: the maxims, ethical and moral do not stand alone. They are part of an immense system. They are built on a great foundation. They rise out of the conception of God, and His relation to man. Then, note, He does not mean the people He calls to remain individuals, shut off from each other; He associates them in a great kingdom. That kingdom is called of heaven; which means, it is not like the kingdoms of earth, created by physical power, planted by passion or pride—that were despotism. Then He says, it is a kingdom of God. That means, it does not come from the act

of might or tyranny or deception, the ambition of some great man, planted on the throne of empire; it was God's, meant to be realized in conscience, to show the authority of God over the man. The people drawn into that kingdom, are drawn into it by the truth, that is, its citizens are obedient to the truth by belief of the truth. The men that compose it are men that must not seek to extend it by sword or persecution, by civil law or military power. It is a kingdom of the truth, standing, extending, reigning, only through the truth and the agencies it employs. Within that kingdom, which has no visible form and can know no limits of time and place, the faithful and holy men of all ages and races are gathered, and engaged in a common labor, working together with God through His Son in building up a new humanity, where, instead of the old despotism of force, the new force of divine love shall reign supreme. That kingdom is an eternal ideal ever in process of realization, never to be perfectly realized. Yet it is all the mightier because it is so ideal. In the mind of God there lies a pattern according to which the new creation is made, and that pattern is the kingdom which Jesus instituted, and which His people constitute. Within it truth reigns, law rules, and obedience is realized. It has come, yet it is only coming; when a man has entered it, he is a citizen of God's city. Once it is completely realized on earth, the will of God will be done here as in heaven.—*A. M. Fairbairn, D.D.*

THE CONQUEST OF THE UNDER EARTH.

BY PROFESSOR N. S. SHALER, SC. D.

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THE advance in the arts and through them the gain in the general conditions of mankind, has intimately depended on the extent to which science has made it possible to win the resources of the under earth. Each step in the progress of civilization has been marked by the adoption into our industries of new materials extracted

from below the soil or by the extended use of some substance which may have been before in some limited way serviceable. In the most primitive state man depends only in slight measure on the geological structure of the land he inhabits; almost anywhere he can find hard bits of stone in the brooks or along the shores, which may be shaped into

rude tools and weapons; clays which are almost always present by the side of streams afford material for rude pottery. It is when in the advance above the grade of mere savagery, where the grade commonly denoted by the term barbarism is attained, that we find man becoming an ore seeker, and this for the reason that the gain in station is due to the use of metals.

At first the resort to the metallic stores was narrowly limited. For ages copper and tin used in the alloy called bronze satisfied the limited demand for tools and weapons, and certain of those metals were early resorted to for the reason that they yielded the useful product on the application of a small amount of heat such as might be accidentally applied by an ordinary camp fire. It was centuries after the knowledge of bronze began before the use of bellows enabled the early peoples to discover metallic iron, which is practically unknown in its native state except in rare meteorites,¹ and which in its oxidized form has no value in the arts.

So slow was the advance in the utilization of the earth products that when our ancestors first came to this country there were not more than about twenty substances other than building stones or gems which were won to commerce from the under earth. These were scantily used; the amount of iron required *per capita* each year probably did not exceed five pounds and the amount of coal consumed was even less. At present the annual consumption of iron in this country amounts to about two hundred and fifty pounds, and of coal to more than a ton and a half per head. The number of earth materials and their immediate products which enter into the arts is to be reckoned by the hundreds; each year the number augments with surprising rapidity. Measured by the quantity of the materials won from the depths, the civilized man of to-day as compared with his ancestors in the time of Queen Elizabeth has increased his dependence on the under earth by not less than fifty fold. This increase in the use of the geologic resources as well as the material and other gains which have come in their train has been made possible by the appli-

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cation of science and its companion, invention, to the exploration of the under earth. For the reason that all this learning which has been applied to the depths is of a peculiarly difficult nature and because the results of it have been so momentous, so fundamental, I shall devote this closing paper of the series to this branch of endeavor.

Man has but slowly acquired the freedom of the earth; even to find his way over the surface, to chart its seas and lands, has required centuries of exploration; the task is yet but rudely done. Still more slowly is he proceeding to interpret the depths of the sphere; in that hidden realm each step has to be taken with great cost of thought and labor. It is a dark field lit only by the understanding; by that form of mental work where the imagination gives suggestions which have ever to be revised by comparisons with the facts.

The Greeks came near creating a science of the earth; that they failed to do so was due in part to the fact that while they were skilled in the use of the imagination they never learned to test its productions in a critical way by comparing them with the truths which were to be explained. Just here indeed we find the most important difference between the old and the new learning. The modern men of science have acquired the absolute necessity of verifying their conjectures; the ancients had not learned the lesson. Another obstacle to the interpretation of the earth was the natural belief that the sphere had passed through its history from the earliest times to the present ages in a few thousand years. There was much blundering before it was found that the plain meaning of the records as they are written in the rocks is to the effect that many million years have been required to bring about the change in this planet from its originally heated state to that in which we now find it. Until this point was made clear to the minds of geologists they could not set about their tasks in a rational way, in a way which has led them to their success.

The science of geology began in the work connected with mining. Both the Greeks and Romans operated gold, silver, copper,

tin, and iron mines in a limited manner, but they merely followed the leads of ore without any effort to find the principles which underlaid the occurrence of the deposits; but when the scientific awakening began after the close of the Middle Ages, those who were concerned in the work undertook the study of minerals and to collect the facts of their occurrence. They were also led to devise better means for ventilating and pumping the mines and for treating the ores in order to extract their value. In this way the great mining establishments, mostly under government control and therefore conducted in a large and liberal way, became in many places, especially in Germany, the seats of much scientific study. Two or three centuries ago it became the custom to establish schools for instruction in the arts connected with the mineral industries. More than one of these schools, notably that at Freiberg, in Saxony, had a decided influence on the development of geological knowledge. Numerous mechanical inventions of importance have developed in connection with mining work. The system of the pump, one of the greatest improvements in the hydraulic art, was perfected for lifting water from the depths of the earth. Yet more important is the fact that the steam engine in its original form was devised to work the pumps of the English mines, which at the time had begun to work below the level at which it was easy to keep them clear of water, which is the ancient and ever present enemy of the mines. It is doubtful whether the gift of the steam engine in a practical form would have come as soon as it did had it not been for the insistent demand for improvement in the means of taking the water from the mines.

Although the effect of the mining industry on the development of the steam engine is noteworthy, some of the most important influence of this branch of activity has been in a work which is in its own province, *i. e.*, in the treatment of the metal bearing ores. Of old the process whereby the ores were extracted involved a very large expenditure of labor as did also their treatment in the primitive furnaces. Step by step the processes have been improved until the cost of

labor of the work is probably not more than one fourth what it was one hundred years ago. In large measure this gain in cheapness has been brought about by the use of dynamite and other similar explosives, but in large measure it is due to the use of compressed air to operate mechanical drilling machines which penetrate the rock with ten times the speed which can be attained with the old hand method. In a like manner the work of mining coal has been furthered by the use of appropriate cutting engines. Not the least of the benefits of these contrivances operated by compressed air is found in the better ventilation which is afforded by the cool and dry air which is delivered in the mines from these machines. Still further we may note the invention of the "Davy" or safety lamp which guards those who work in fiery coal mines from the risks of those fearful explosions which often take place in such workings. Such calamities still occur, but they are in nearly all cases due to exceeding carelessness, while in earlier times they were inevitable.

The greatest gains from scientific invention are to be found in the treatment of ores to extract the metals; these are very numerous. They pertain to every variety of mineral product. Of the host we can note but one series, that which relates to the production of iron. Down to near the end of the last century metallic iron was extracted from its ores, which rarely contain over sixty per cent of the metal, by means of furnaces essentially like an ordinary blacksmith's forge only somewhat larger. In the hearth of this forge the pulverized ore was placed in alternate layers of charcoal; the material was fired and subjected to a blast of air until it was greatly heated. It was then stirred until the melted ore formed a ball-like mass, which was beaten by a trip hammer with numerous reheatings until the dross was squeezed from the metal; the process requiring about ten days' labor of a man to make a ton of iron. Within a century by many successive stages of improvement the modern high stack iron furnace has taken the place of the Roman instrument. In this new appliance two hundred tons or more of

metal may be made in a day and the average expenditure for labor on the work is about half a day. The result is that ordinary iron which sold in this country a few decades ago for about fifty dollars a ton has by the improvement in the processes of mining and of smelting been sold at a profit for about seven dollars a ton at the works.

As all our economic life depends upon an abundant and cheap supply of metals and of coal, the arts which produce these substances are fundamental in their importance. But the success in these arts in dealing with the problem of cheap and large production has depended in an intimate way on the knowledge which geologists have afforded as to the seats of supply of ores and their attitudes in their lodgments. In this way the relation of the metallic industries to scientific learning has become more intimate than is the case with any other branch of economic work of like importance.

The contribution of geology to the practical affairs of civilization began with the work of the mine; in this department the gift has been in the way of knowledge concerning the origin, nature, and distribution of the mineral deposits which have to be followed underground. What may fairly be termed the laws of such deposits have been tolerably well worked out by bringing together a multitude of instances and by observing their correspondences. Thus it is possible to advise miners as to what are termed the prospects of their ventures much as an expert in any other form of business may wisely counsel men who propose to engage in it. So, too, it often happens that the explorer of a lode or bed finds that the rocks have been riven apart and the fragments forced apart so that he cannot ascertain in what direction the deposit has been thrown. The principles of these faultings³ have been much inquired into so that a well trained student of the subject can in almost all cases readily find where the necessary mineral may be found. In other words the learning serves here as elsewhere as a guide to the practical man at every stage of the work.

The larger contribution of geology to economics has been made in the work which

it has done in deciphering and recording in maps and reports the geological conditions of various countries. This work has been carried so far that a tolerably good account has been given of the lands of all civilized countries. In all, rather more than one half of all continents have been in a considerable measure studied. By the middle of the next century we may hope to have this work fairly complete. As the mineral resources of a country intimately depend on its geological history, this survey of the geologist gives an immediate though general clue to the mineral wealth of any district which it covers. Thus if the rocks be of carboniferous age⁴ there is a strong probability amounting almost to a certainty that they will be found to contain coal beds. If they are of silurian age⁵ it is certain that no coal will be found in them. So, too, of sundry other mineral resources, science gives the clue to the search, the actual seeking is the business of the more practical man; though in this work also he may well have the help of the investigator. Few mining undertakings are ventured on without the assistance of the geological expert who may bring to the task a share of the learning which can be applied to the problem, and the greater part of the blunders which befall such work is due to the lack of competent geological advice.

Perhaps the largest of the contributions to economics which geological science has made has been in the way of discoveries of fertilizing substances, those which in various admixtures constitute the commercial manures which now enter so largely into high grade agriculture. Until near the beginning of the present century the soil tilled had no other resource for the refreshment of the soil than that obtained from the barnyards and slaughter houses. As the share of these fertilizers was limited and their use on garden crops in many ways objectionable, soil tilling seemed to have attained a certain bound beyond which the only resource consisted in resorting to new virgin soil and fresh fields, which in the civilized world are each year ever in less supply. The history of tillage shows us that the soil in many of the

ancient seats of culture has become exhausted by long continued cropping in such a manner that it no longer will support a considerable population; this unhappy end might under the old system slowly but surely have overtaken all that part of the land which could not be fertilized by the ordinary manures. The presage was indeed ominous of evil. In this state of the agricultural art, geological science came to its help in a sudden and most effective manner through the discovery of mineral phosphates.

Since the early days of this century geologists had been curious as to the nature and origin of certain peculiar beds of nodular materials which were found in the green sands⁶ of England, particularly near Cambridge. These rudely egg shaped masses were at first supposed to be fossil excrement of fishes. They were found on analysis to contain a large amount of lime phosphate. In most cases sixty per cent or more of their mass is composed of this substance. At the suggestion of the distinguished geologist, Dr. Buckland, these so-called coprolites were ground and applied to the land and this with good results; here the agricultural chemist came in with the prescription that the material in its ground state should be mixed with sulphuric acid so that the phosphate might be made more soluble and thus accessible to plants, and also that potash, soda, and ammoniacal materials should be mixed with the mass so as to afford more complete food for vegetation.

The result of the discovery of mineral

lime phosphates and of deposits containing lime, soda, etc., has been in a very large way to change the prospects of man in his relations to the soil. He no longer is to be the waster of his inheritance, he may each year and almost indefinitely extend the productiveness of the fields which give him support. Chaucer's lines that:

"Ever from ye olde fields as men seyth (=see)
Cometh the new corn from year to year"

may by this contribution from the earth science be indefinitely true.

Good as are the immediate economic profits which the earth science has given to man it may fairly be said that the most substantial gains which this learning has afforded have been brought about by the enlargement of understanding as to the history of the planet. So long as the earth was conceived as a mere rude heap of matter subject to fierce purposeless convulsions and arbitrary changes, the intellectual position of mankind was detached from nature, which seemed indeed unfriendly. With this gift of the larger understanding has come the feeling, based on knowledge, that we are a part of an organized whole, that man is in a great procession of events which moves forth from the shadows of the past to the light of the present and the days to come. Such is the province of science, its duty is enlargement of views; it leaves to its handmaid, invention, the application of the truth which it discovers to the immediate economic needs of life.

PENSIONS IN LEGISLATION.

BY PROFESSOR F. W. BLACKMAR.

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FOR more than a hundred years an important law has stood on the statute books of the United States which is at once the key to pension legislation and the basis of the pension system. This law simply asserts, "If any person whether officer or soldier belonging to the militia of any state and called out into the service of the

United States be wounded or disabled while in active service he shall be taken care of and provided for at public expense." This guarantee of the nation that the disabled soldier would be cared for, followed by subsequent promises to care for wife and children should he die in his country's cause, has cheered many a soldier in the fatal

charge and sustained him in hours of deepest distress. In caring for the disabled soldiers of sixteen wars, two of which were great conflicts, the government has been given ample opportunity to verify this general principle of the pension system. And well has the principle been adhered to; for no other nation has done so much for disabled soldiers and seamen and their families as the United States. It is a matter of pride to every citizen that those who fought and suffered in defense of our homes and our common country have been so well cared for.

Yet the pension system as it now exists was a matter of slow development in the minds and hearts of the people as well as in the statutes of the nation. It was fully thirty years after the Declaration of Independence that the first general pension law was enacted. While in this period certain provisions were made for disabled veterans, the laws were partial, and the term "pension" was never used. For it must be known that in the revolutionary period of our nation's history there was a distrust and fear of all pensions and pension legislation on account of the abuse of the military and civil pensions of England which were granted to the favored few as rewards for special services. They were simply given to the friends of the government and their followers, favoring a few at the expense of the many. The revolutionary fathers were familiar with the odious system and hoped it would never prevail in America.

But General Washington knew that something besides patriotism would be necessary to refill year after year, his constantly depleted battalions. Looking from the practical side of the question, he knew that men could not be induced to leave their homes and business and the common comforts of life to take their lives in their hands, even in the defense of their nation, without some compensation. So, through the advice of Washington, in 1776 the pay of the commissioned officers was increased so that gentlemen of ability would enlist in the service of the government. In the same year to each noncommissioned officer who enlisted to serve through the war a bounty of twenty

dollars was given and land in addition thereto. It was further provided that those persons who enlisted for three months only were to receive the bounty but no land.

The poverty of the government and the prejudice against special legislation in this line made Washington cautious in his suggestions respecting rewards to soldiers. Finally Congress, in 1778, ordered that commissioned officers who remained in the service to the close of the war should receive half pay for a period of seven years from the date of its close. This bounty was to be paid only on condition that the officers receiving it should hold no civil office and should take the oath of allegiance to the United States. In the following year another step forward was taken. In the early part of the session a resolution to extend the half pay for life was lost, but being brought up again later in the session was passed and became a law. In this measure the restriction against civil offices, existing in the previous law, was withdrawn.

For several years no further attempt was made to reward the defenders and makers of the nation. In 1780 it was enacted that the widows of commissioned officers who perished in service, or the orphan children in case of the death of the widow, should receive the half pay guaranteed to the officers. In this same act it was provided that officers who were discharged on account of the reduction of the army should be retired on half pay for a period of seven years. Subsequently the term was extended for life.

In 1783, owing to the fact that those who had been long in the service were in straightened circumstances, and in part, as some think, on account of the great prejudice against life pensions, such officers as should select might change their half pay for life into full pay for five years. In the light of history it seems a very strange thing to do, and a full explanation of it is not to be found in the records.

Another step toward a pension system was taken in 1785 when Congress passed the first resolution to provide for invalid sailors and soldiers. It may be said to be the first invalid pension law and the begin-

ning of the real pension system. It provided that sailors and soldiers who had been disabled in the War of the Revolution, "so as to be incapable of military duty, or of obtaining a livelihood by labor" should receive half pay for life, commencing with the date of the injury or discharge; while those partially disabled were to receive pay in proportion to their disability. To guard against fraud the law was made very specific in requiring each person to obtain a proper certificate from his commander or surgeon or the director of a hospital describing the nature of the disability. It was further provided that each state should report annually the list of disabled soldiers and sailors, and that an officer should be appointed in each state to pass on evidence of disability. Thus before the adoption of the Constitution did the young nation pledge support and care to her defenders.

A minor law followed which allowed each state credit with the United States for money spent on invalids prior to the general law, and provided that no invalid should receive a pension unless he should file an application within six months after date of disability. Perhaps this was a wise precaution as a financial policy, but it appears to be unfair to establish a statute of limitations to prevent the payment of legitimate obligations.

Having provided for the urgent cases, the government, always busy with new affairs, rested from important legislation until April, 1806, when the first general pension law was enacted. It was in the enactment of this law that the terms "pension" and "pensioner" are first used. This law required the most searching evidence as to the disability of the soldier. He must prove by at least one witness besides the surgeon as to when, where, and how the injury occurred, before his name could be placed on the pension lists. The law provided a pension of half pay for commissioned officers and five dollars per month for noncommissioned officers, soldiers, and sailors. And thus it became a settled policy that all persons disabled while in military service in time of war should be provided for at the public expense,

"whether they served in the land or sea service of the forces of the United States or any particular state, in the regular corps or the militia, or as volunteers." The pension system was thus well established, not on sentiment or gratitude, but on the sure foundation of disability.

In 1818 a law was enacted which changed the aspect of the pension plan. It seems as if the old prejudice against pensions had finally disappeared and the representatives of the people turned with gratitude toward the survivors of the Revolution, although it was gravely asserted in the halls of Congress that specially interested parties not pensioners urged the matter forward. The law provided that any person who served in the Revolutionary War for a period of nine months or longer "who is, or hereafter, by reason of his reduced circumstances in life, shall be in need of assistance from his country for support," shall receive a pension. Contrary to the expectations of nearly everyone the applications came in by the thousands under this new law. Over thirty thousand made applications for pensions, a number greater than Washington's whole army as it existed at any one time. Though based on disability and poverty it amounted to a service pension. Over twelve thousand applicants were rejected, but about eighteen hundred new names were placed on the roll. It was estimated by the legislators that \$160,000 would bear the expense of this bill, but by this act the appropriation for pensions was increased by \$1,847,900 the first year, and the following year by \$2,766,440. The laws were quite severe on the applicant, yet the people believed that many frauds were committed. Congress following public sentiment enacted in 1820 a law compelling applicants to list their property and take oath as to its value. This act alone struck over six thousand names from the roll, and over two thousand pensioners never fulfilled the requirements of this new law, being unwilling to submit to the test. It is interesting to note how eagerly people accepted the opportunity for a pension under the law of 1818 and how many attempts, through ignorance or fraud, were made to secure pen-

sions. It is asserted that persons even disposed of their property for the time being in order to receive a pension.

There was prepared in 1828, and subsequently in 1830, what is known in history as the "Mammoth Pension Bill." It was the first pension bill that provoked much heated debate in Congress. The pension service has always been a tender subject. No one likes to be placed in the attitude of refusing to give to the defenders of the country their just dues, and people are easily misunderstood on this subject. And doubtless until this time there was little need of discussion. The law provided that a person who had no more than \$1,000, after all of his debts were paid, should be considered as unable to support himself and worthy of a pension, that the nine months should be construed to mean either consecutive or at intervals. This bill failed in the Senate, although a similar one passed the House, owing chiefly to the vigorous attacks made upon it by Hayne of South Carolina. Mr. Hayne claimed that in opposing the bill he was only doing justice and honor to the veterans who would have taken this same action could they have had the opportunity. He held that such a law would admit hosts to the pension privileges who were mere hangers-on to the army. It was in keeping with the times that this opposition to the pension law should come from a southern state, because the South was more impressed with the doctrine that the government that governs least governs best; also because the people of the South thought that through taxation they paid out more for pensions in proportion to what they received than did the people of the North. This was forcibly put by speakers in Congress. In addition to this Mr. Hayne in his speech makes out a strong case against extravagance and fraud.

The act of 1828, which provided that officers who served in the Revolutionary army as enumerated in the law of 1780 and enlisted men who performed like service should be granted full monthly pay provided that no officer received a higher pay than that of captain, was followed by an act of 1832 which conferred the same benefits on those

who had served only two years instead of to the close of the war. It further provided that those who had served at least six months should receive a pension rated in proportion to the time served. This bill provoked a great deal of discussion in both House and Senate and several strong speeches were made on both sides. It was feared by the opposition that the same results would follow this act that followed the act of 1818 and that Congress would again be obliged to come to the rescue with a provisional law to prevent fraud in the latter as in the former case. But the bill passed both houses and became a law. It was followed by an unusually large number of applications for pensions, increased expenditures, and with these the cry of fraudulent practices.

The result of this law brought forth one of the most interesting documents relating to pension legislation in the President's Message to Congress in 1836. The president calls specific attention to the numerous frauds being practiced in the pension department and recommends a careful investigation of each case. He said that "the honest veteran has nothing to fear from such a scrutiny, while fraudulent claimants will be detected and the public treasury relieved." With this document may be said to close the first period of pension legislation in the United States. Beginning with half pay to a few military officers the system had enlarged so as to take in all of the disabled without reserve and to care for all those who needed support. It had been checked in its approach to a service pension in practice. From this time to the Civil War the laws enacted were simply modifications of those already in force.

Thus on July 2, 1836, an act was passed granting the same pension to the widows and orphans of deceased veterans as had been given to officers under the law of 1832, provided that marriage had occurred prior to the close of the last service. The term of marriage was extended from time to time and finally abolished in 1853. This established a precedent for the care of the families of those who perished in the defense of

their country. Other modifications took place, such as the granting of a large amount of public land to the veterans of the War of 1812 and of the Mexican War.

By the commencement of the great Civil War the pension system had been thoroughly established and a liberal pension system was the inevitable outcome of the war. The great magnitude of the war made a gigantic pension system an essential outcome. It is impossible to give more than a glimpse of the subject. Beginning with 1862 there were not less than twenty-five important general laws passed relating to pensions prior to the close of 1890. Besides there were many changes and amendments, and over six thousand special pension laws or acts. Among the more important ones are the first law of 1862, the consolidation act of 1873, the arrears bill of 1879, the dependent act of 1890, and the acts granting pensions to the survivors of the Revolution in 1871 and to the survivors of the Mexican War in 1887. As a result of this legislation there has sprung a great department of administration which has an army of clerks and special officers and disburses nearly half a million dollars per day.

The reason for the existence of pensions as exhibited in the laws is usually found in one or more of the four following propositions: (1) that pensions are given to provide for the support of those who are disabled in the service of the government or to provide for the families of the deceased veterans as a mere matter of justice; (2) a recognition that the monthly pay was insufficient for the service rendered; (3) patriotism is stimulated by the thought that the nation cares for its suffering heroes, and (4) a sentiment of gratitude toward those who defended their own homes and the homes of others. The nation was fully committed to the first proposition at the outbreak of the Rebellion. Bounties and pensions were used as inducements for enlistment. And while it is true, as a patriotic veteran remarked, that those who enlisted to do honest service usually were so stirred by patriotism as to think little of pay to be received, it is also true that the depleted ranks were filled to a certain extent

by the recruiting officer by promises of bounty, pension, and care. While none of these promises could be counted as legal contracts they do appear as obligations to be fulfilled. The Constitution in the fourteenth amendment recognizes the validity of all debts contracted by law for the payment of pensions, thus enforcing the doctrine that such expenditures are legal and just.

The law of 1862 provided for pensioning all disabled soldiers in active service at the time their disability was caused. It asserted that the pension should begin with the date of discharge from service when the claim had been filed within one year after that date. In 1864 the time for filing claims was extended to three years, in 1868 to five, and in 1879 the time limit was abolished. It appears that a limitation set upon the general laws proved more of a hindrance than a help in meting out justice, for it frequently happens that the most deserving are the last to file claims for assistance.

Under the action of the law of 1862 and its several amendments the amount expended for pensions gradually increased until 1871 when the annual expenditure began to decrease. But the law of 1879, which granted arrears to all pensioners, that is, back pay from the time of the disability, nearly doubled the expenditure for the next two or three years. It appears that this bill was not very thoroughly discussed in the committee and passed the House and Senate under a suspension of the rules and with scarcely any debate. It was estimated by the secretary of the interior that an additional \$41,000,000 would cover the entire expenditures on account of the bill. But in 1881 the commissioner of pensions estimated that it would take at least \$510,000,000, to pay the pensions created by the bill. Certain cautious statesmen tried to point out the magnitude of the undertaking and uttered a note of warning, but those in power either did not hear or did not heed the injunction. While nearly everyone was surprised at the number added to the pension list by the bill and at the enormous expenditure caused by it, yet there really is no objection to the principle in-

volved of having all pensions date from the time of disability.

The tendency of pension legislation is shown by the law of 1871, which gave a pension of eight dollars per month to all survivors of the War of 1812 who had served sixty days in the war and to widows of deceased soldiers the same pension. A similar law granted a pension in 1887 to the survivors of the Mexican War who had served ninety days and who had reached the age of sixty-two years. An attempt was made in the same year to pass a law almost as liberal as either of these in favor of the soldiers of the late war. It was known as the "Dependent Act" and was vetoed by the president. Three years thereafter a similar measure was passed. It provided that all persons who had served ninety days or more in the military or naval service of the United States during the late War of the Rebellion and who have been honorably discharged therefrom, and who are now or may be hereafter suffering from mental or physical weakness, or disability of a permanent character, not the result of their own vicious habits, which incapacitates them for the performance of manual labor in such a degree as to render them unable to earn a support, shall be placed on the list of the invalid pensioners. This law gave a pension of not less than \$6, nor more than \$12 per month, the latter for total disability and the former for partial. Widows of deceased soldiers received \$8 per month, and each child under sixteen years of age received \$2 per month. Special regulations respecting marriage were made. In March, 1895, a law was passed which made the minimum amount paid on account of any pension to be \$6 per month.

There was considerable agitation before and after the passage of this bill and an attempt to work up public sentiment for the passage of a service bill failed. The immense expenditures of the government, the intense activity of agents and demagogues in behalf of the "old soldier" caused a reaction in sentiment. There spread over the country in 1892 and 1893 this revulsion of feeling. It was evident in newspaper articles, magazine articles, and in public ad-

resses. It was not less strongly manifested by many of the veterans themselves. It was especially manifested in the surprising majority rolled up in the election of 1892 when the policy of the government was reversed. But in all of this change there was only a plea for a wise conservatism. There was no reaction from the sentiment that the true veterans of the late war should receive all that could be reasonably paid for what they suffered in behalf of the country. No one will admit for an instant that the man who takes his musket in hand to face for three long years the terrors of war can ever be fully repaid either in gratitude, in honor, or in money, but a grateful nation never hesitates to do all that is possible to do to repay the debt, within the bounds of reason and justice to all. Yet it has been frequently commented upon that the actions of demagogues and agents to press the claims of the veteran to use him in their own pecuniary interests has detracted rather than added to the glory of his cause. None have been quicker to discover this than the members of the G. A. R. themselves. The *Grand Army Gazette* speaking on this question states,

"Every dollar paid in fraud is stolen not alone from the patient tax-payers but from deserving veterans. Strike! comrades, while the iron is hot, and if it should sear some bogus claimants so as to leave a mark by which they may be known of all men, there will be no cause for regret."

It could hardly be possible that such a gigantic system could be carried on under general laws without cases of fraud. And this has been freely admitted by pension commissioners and sturdy old soldiers in the halls of Congress and elsewhere. While there is a strong sentiment coming from all patriotic citizens that no soldier who defended the Union shall suffer unduly therefor without an attempt to repay him, there is also a sentiment prevailing that the rights of deserving veterans are best protected by the exercise of a wise conservatism in pension legislation. Legislation on this subject is a delicate matter at best and it would be better for the veteran and the nation if we were all less sensitive about it and could talk more freely without being misunderstood.

WEBSTER'S REPLY TO HAYNE.

BY PRESIDENT CHARLES J. LITTLE, LL. D.

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A GREAT speech is a historical event; like a decisive battle, the outcome of many causes and the fruitful beginning of a new epoch. The few words of Mirabeau¹ defying the order of the king of France ushered in the French Revolution; they were indeed the expression of a rich and mighty personality, but they also rounded out the struggles of a generation with an immortal proclamation of the sovereignty of the people.

Webster's reply to Hayne, considered merely as the effort of a single mind, is a wonder and a perpetual delight. But it was far more than this. It was the first articulate speech of the American nation, the first adequate proclamation of the national self-consciousness, the first clear and thrilling prophecy of indestructible national unity. Washington and Hamilton, Madison and Marshall had wrought and written to develop this consciousness and craving; but they had been thwarted by the old provincialism and the old prejudice. The theory of the Constitution in spite of the great chief justice remained beclouded; state sovereignty reared its defiant head now here, now there; the Missouri Compromise had barely saved the Union; East and West and South watched each other with exasperating jealousy and credulous suspicion; railroads and telegraphs did not then, as now, weld these separate commonwealths into a complex and living whole. There was a law in the members of the Federal Union which was at war with the law of its mind. And it was the law of its mind that Webster spoke and expounded once and forever.

It came about in this way: Mr. Foote of Connecticut had offered a harmless little resolution about the public lands. Coming from New England this was seized upon by Benton of Missouri and Hayne of South Carolina as another attempt to prevent the development of

the West. The Mississippi Valley expected to depopulate the East, and Mr. Calhoun (for whom Hayne spoke) having lost his hold upon the North was looking for alliances beyond the Alleghenies. Already the cloud no bigger than a man's hand,—the cloud of nullification—had appeared in South Carolina. Calhoun, the inventor and expounder of this curious and baleful doctrine, although vice president of the United States was the chosen chieftain of the southern extremists who were beginning "to calculate the value of the Union," to emblazon the flag "with the miserable interrogatory, What is all this worth?" Nevertheless the debate on Foote's resolution had been dry and wearisome, until one afternoon Daniel Webster, then senator from Massachusetts, coming from the court pretty late in the day sauntered into the Senate Chamber with his court papers under his arm, just to see what was passing. Mr. Hayne soon rose to make a speech. "I did not like it," wrote Mr. Webster to a friend, "and my friends liked it less." He took the floor accordingly and made a complete and dignified reply.

The following Thursday Colonel Hayne insisted upon resuming the debate, much to Webster's inconvenience, who remained reluctantly away from court to listen to a speech of two days' mingled eloquence and rancor, in which the senator from South Carolina discharged his volleys at New England and her champion. It was a deliberate, malignant, overbearing challenge; not to answer was impossible. Hayne felt himself, no doubt, quite equal, if not superior, to the Boston lawyer. But behind him stood Calhoun, whose agent he was believed to be, whose views he certainly defended. Both of them hungered for a discussion of their favorite doctrine; both were confident of victory. Hayne expected to be the leading figure in the coming move-

ment in his native state; he must fire the hearts of his compatriots. Able and adroit and eloquent he certainly was, a man of full stature in every respect; but he attacked a giant and became immortal by the blow that cleft his own skull in twain. For on the morning of January 26, 1830, Daniel Webster rose to reply.

He was then in the glory of his majestic manhood, just entering his forty-ninth year. His hair still raven-black was brushed away from a domelike forehead; eyes lustrous and beautiful in repose glowed with unearthly splendor when his brain grew hot with thought. A swarthy, somber face, suggesting depths of passion and of power, was transfigured at intervals with gleams of humor and the glory of an inspired mind. Neither too tall nor too large, yet the embodiment of massive energy, he moved about like a superior being, every gesture a revelation or a command. His magnificent voice had acquired under the touch of recent and terrible sorrow a penetrating and irresistible pathos. He wore his great reputation (for he was already famous) with unobtrusive dignity, neither trembling at his own shadow nor eager to display his strength. None knew better than he that among the forty-four senators assembled he was easily the chief; for the tall gaunt reasoner from South Carolina who occupied the chair could match him only in dialectic skill.

News of the great debate had filled the city with strangers; the House of Representatives was deserted; men and women struggled for standing room; floor and galleries and stairways were crowded with eager and excited listeners. As yet the great oration existed in outline only; the night before Mr. Webster had stated the points of it to Mr. Everett and discussed them calmly with his friend. Mr. Everett was startled at his nonchalance^a and lack of preparation. He feared, as he afterwards confessed, that Webster did not realize the greatness of the occasion and his opportunity. The orator of Plymouth Rock and Bunker Hill, the eulogist of Adams and of Jefferson, had before him no holiday task and yet he was approaching it with easy, almost playful confidence.

But his whole life had been a preparation for it, seeing that his theme must be the eternal inseparability of liberty and union in the United States of America. Each of his earlier speeches had dealt with the same great motive; through each of them throbbed the same consciousness of American destiny, the same faith in the grandeur of American institutions and in the priceless value of the Federal Union. Then too, his life had been a preparation for it in quite another sense. From the beginning he had eschewed all meanness and vulgarity of speech; he had no taste for detraction and denunciation; even in prosecuting criminals he revealed a majesty of mental and moral movement that inspired awe. So it was impossible for him to lay aside his magnanimity.

A man of less nobility might easily have been provoked to answer Hayne in kind; but Webster never for a moment went astray. He never forgot the grandeur of his theme in the pursuit of his adversary. As we pass from paragraph to paragraph we see Hayne's shadow before us; sometimes exciting us to merriment under the spell of Webster's humor, sometimes stirring him to a burst of eloquence that breaks across us like music from another world. Cicero's famous maxim that the orator must be "*bonus vir*"^b is realized to perfection in this marvelous reply. So too is Buffon's^c equally famous, "The style is the man," and Webster's own declaration that eloquence is in the subject, *the man*, and the occasion.

Experience at the bar and in the halls of legislation had made him master of his knowledge and of himself, and perfected him in all the strategy of public speech. He had learned from Jeremiah Mason^d to be at once precise and powerful; his native genius taught him how to be sublime. His style had been chastened into submission to his thought, and the subtle instincts of the orator taught him how and what to think aloud. He knew what not to say; indeed one feels that the wrong thing could hardly find an entrance to his mind.

Possibly the speech as we have it has been purged of all excess and all defect.

For it was recovered painfully from stenographic notes and revised into its present form. Yet the outlines of it are so beautiful and the whole conception of it so majestic that the ultimate expression seems to flow forth with easy spontaneity. It is a lofty argument, sustained, coherent, invincible; but interspersed with passages of richest humor and the rarest eloquence. And the whole is more marvelous in its impression than any of the parts. Exordium and peroration are the finest in the history of oratory; certain paragraphs amaze us with their simplicity of structure and their overwhelming power; yet the chief wonder, the perennial delight of this astonishing achievement is its glorious unity. It is as if the speech itself must be a symbol of the Union that the orator defended and expounded; so easily did every topic yield to the mind that marshaled all of them to harmony.

If now we pass from the general characteristics to the separate parts of this great speech, the exordium at once surprises and attracts; it seems like the prelude to a poem rather than the opening to an argument.

"Mr. President: When the mariner has been tossed for many days in thick weather and on an unknown sea, he naturally avails himself of the first pause in the storm, the earliest glance of the sun, to take his latitude and ascertain how far the elements have driven him from his true course. Let us imitate this prudence, and before we float farther upon the waves of this debate refer to the point from which we departed, that we may at least be able to conjecture where we now are. I ask for the reading of the resolution before the Senate."

One recalls involuntarily the passage in the *Aeneid*⁸ where Neptune appears to quell the storm, for this exordium suggests such perfect mastery of the tumultuous situation. It thrills and yet it tranquilizes, exciting expectations but allaying all alarm. We are to have no outbreak of invective, no display of angry passion and of personal rancor; but a sky of sunshine over a glorious sea, a mighty mind illuminating a magnificent theme. The passages that follow immediately the reading of the resolution are a reply

to the taunts of Colonel Hayne. They are severe but not ungenerous; severest in their implications and strongest in their manly self-assertion. Hayne had taunted Webster with thinking the senator from Missouri an overmatch for himself; Webster replied with a splendid outburst on matches and overmatches, and the Senate as a Senate of equals.

Hayne had made much of the specter of "the murdered Coalition"; Webster seized upon the allusion to Banquo⁹ and quoted the lines which must have been gall and worm-wood to Calhoun: "They filed their mind," he said, to

"put a barren scepter in their gripe,
Thence to be wrenched with an unlineal hand,
No son of theirs succeeding."

These personalities disposed of, Webster proceeded next to the defense of the North against the attacks of the senator from South Carolina. With singular inconsistency Hayne had defended slavery and yet attempted to transfer from the North to the South the honor of excluding slavery from the Northwest Territory. Webster while deprecating slavery defended the North against the charge of wishing to disturb the domestic system of the South, and vindicated for the North the honor of obtaining the ordinance of 1787.

Hayne had charged the East with bitter hostility to the West, especially in the matter of the public lands. Webster replied by showing that the scheme to retard the population of the West, lest the Atlantic States be drained of population, originated in South Carolina and not in New England. The stream now widens to a broader flow and a larger theme; to wit, the proper disposition of the public lands. "South Carolina," Hayne had said, "has no interest in a canal in Ohio."

"We narrow-minded people of New England," responded Webster, "do not reason thus: we look upon the states not as separated but as united."

Hence the senators from New England were ready to donate the public lands for objects beneficial to all the people. But they had done so, *Teuero duce*,⁹ i. e., under

the leadership of South Carolina and Mr. Calhoun. "Leading gentlemen from South Carolina were first and foremost in behalf of internal improvements" and Massachusetts followed where they led. These crushing sentences upon internal improvements (Calhoun could not himself keep silent during their delivery) were followed by a discussion of the protective system.

The tariff, especially the course of New England regarding it, had been the subject of bitter animadversion in the speech of Colonel Hayne. Mr. Webster in reply showed (1) that the protective policy was the favorite policy of South Carolina in 1816, (2) that Massachusetts opposed the tariff of 1824, (3) that New England having acquiesced in a doubtful policy was now averse to its destruction. But Hayne had gone still further; "he had sallied forth into a general assault on the opinions, politics, and parties of New England as they had been exhibited in the last thirty years." Webster declining "to rake among the rubbish of by-gone times to find something by which to fix a blot upon the escutcheon of any state," scornfully refused to furnish samples of political scurrility from southern sources. "I leave to the gentleman and his purveyors the whole concern," he said with haughty indignation.

But Hayne's reference to the Hartford Convention gave the senator from Massachusetts his finest opportunity. First to denounce it as "disloyal and obnoxious to censure" and then to compare it with the recent convention of nullifiers in South Carolina, secondly to pronounce the splendid eulogy on South Carolina in which he overwhelmed his antagonist with the touching reference to his own grandfather, "whose honored name the gentleman himself bears," and finally to speak of Massachusetts in words as sublime as they are imperishable, words of eternal inspiration to her own children and to all that love the name of American liberty. It is the moral superiority of Webster that lifts him here so far above his adversary; his longing for harmony and union, his recurrence to pleasing recollections, his magnanimity and breadth of

view, his enthusiasm for liberty, his pride in all his countrymen, his passionate love for the whole Union.

The greatest duty devolved upon him, Mr. Webster next declared, was to state and defend the true principles of the Constitution. Swiftly summing up the five points of nullification expounded by his adversary, he proceeded to compare them with the Constitution. Mr. Hayne here interposed with the Virginia Resolution of 1798.¹⁰ Mr. Webster rejoined that Madison, the author of that resolution, had contemplated quite a different thing, the right of ultimate revolution. Mr. Hayne, rising again, contended for the right of *constitutional* resistance. "This right to annul a law of Congress cannot be maintained except upon the ground of revolution," responded Mr. Webster.

1. The Federal Constitution is the people's Constitution, "the people's government, made for the people, made by the people, and answerable to the people." The people themselves have limited the sovereignty of the several states.

2. The interpretation of the statutes does not belong to the legislatures of the states: that would be absurdly ridiculous and restore at once the old Confederation.

3. New England, even in the days of the embargo, appealed to the judicial tribunals of the United States. Samuel Dexter¹¹ argued their case with all his splendid powers. It was lost and New England submitted. Her example should be followed in every case of doubt.

4. The Federal government is not derived from the state governments, but both are derived from the same source, the people, each being created for a different purpose and the powers of each being clearly designated.

5. The practical application of the doctrine of nullification involves in the last resort an armed resistance to the Federal authority, and armed resistance is treason. This was worked out by Mr. Webster in a picture of great dramatic power in which Colonel Hayne was cast for the principal part.

6. The Constitution is not unchangeable, but the right to alter it belongs to the whole people and not to the legislature of any single state. Nullification is an attempt to interpolate new doctrines into the Constitution by a swift and easy process, and to make the Union "a poor dependent upon state permission."

This closely reasoned argument, relieved only by a splendid eulogy of Samuel Dexter and the picture of Colonel Hayne at the head of the militia of his state marching to the customhouse at Charleston,

"all the while

Sonorous metal blowing martial sound,"

blazed finally into the magnificent passage which has since become blood of our blood and brain of our brain. The transition to this outburst of sublimest eloquence exhibits the perfection of Webster's genius. He was a master of *callida junctura*,¹² "the cunning joinings" whereby the artist in speech produces his most wonderful effects. The argument is compacted swiftly into a terse restatement of its chief positions. The five points of Federal supremacy are thus contrasted sharply with the five points of nullification. This summary is followed by four paragraphs, two short and two long. The first of these breathes haughty scorn for a Constitution such as Hayne describes; the second sounds the note of triumph,—the people will not see their chosen Constitution overthrown; the third in a series of short and flashing sentences recites the value of the Federal Union; but the fourth

combines all the resources of rhetoric, every form of sentence and every figure of speech, to give expression to the patriot's passionate love for liberty and union. This peroration is the highest reach of American eloquence; unsurpassed and unsurpassable. It is an anticipation of the national destiny; and the prophetic power of it grows plainer and more luminous now that the storm of civil war is past, now that the nation has learned "to calculate" in blood and tears "the value of the Union." When Henry Watterson at Louisville speaking for the South to the soldiers of the Republic quoted once again these mighty words it was because the language of Webster still lives and rushes spontaneously to the brain and the lips of an American patriot in every supreme moment of national consciousness.

For "the gorgeous ensign of the Republic, now known and honored throughout the earth," is "still full high advanced, its arms and trophies streaming in their original luster, not a stripe erased or polluted nor a single star obscured," bearing for its motto no such "miserable interrogatory," as "What is all this worth?" nor those other words of delusion and folly, "Liberty first and union afterward"; but everywhere spread all over in characters of living light, blazing on all its ample folds, as they float over the sea and over the land and in every wind over the whole heavens, that other sentiment dear to every true American heart, "Liberty and union, now and forever, one and inseparable."

NEW ENGLAND CUSTOMS.

BY ELIZA NELSON BLAIR.

DOMINANCE, courage, truth, self-containment, ran in the blood and stamped the visage of New England pioneers as clearly as the sovereign's head attested a gold coin of the realm. Whether in city, hamlet, or pulling stumps on wild land, a royal quality of spirit and bearing attached to that kingly, that elect race.

Men never lost it either living at ease, or

couching on pine needles in primeval forests beside ax and adz, gun and powderhorn. And the "foremothers," too, carried themselves after a gentle, stately fashion, precise and loving, tender and strong: helps meet for husbands in such stirring times as those created by the opening of a new continent, and the founding of a new empire. No grander women ever performed God's serv-

ice than those, who, often carrying babes in their arms, followed pioneers through blazed forests and along water courses to where a log hut in the wilderness marked one more center to a new civilization. All duly wore the air of those having a right upon earth, because they were indeed chosen to accomplish tasks set for them by Almighty God.

Their character had in it a *right-up-and-downness* good to study in these later days. It gave them manners and customs. Descendants of such ancestry should not utterly fall from social grace in the densest woods. Home, church, school were the settler's trinity of blessing, and the settler's son's son still teaches the doctrine to his children as the foundation of social life. Hospitality, truth, suavity were taught as the basis and essence of good breeding.

Looking back, the courtesies of the fathers have some wonderful aspects: we marvel at many a picture which time-honored sideboards conjure up, and shake ourselves back to the thought that all environments of life are completely changed by the evolution of thought. "Former things have passed away," indoors and outside.

What Yankee son would emulate his ancestor's politeness by offering rich old wine to his pastor? What deacon pour liquors from cut glass decanters for the delectation of half a dozen clergymen, until (as a son who remembered its occurrence seventy years ago said) "Their tongues ran faster than trip hammers"?

Where is the town which would gravely discuss, pass, and spread upon its records a vote of thanks to a builder, adding a resolution appropriating money for a bottle of brandy to be given to the "master builder on the new meeting-house, for his generous and manly behavior while a resident of this town." To be sure he had been three years constructing the edifice and they must have learned his worth as carpenter and man.

Town and country have each their different ways, but the summer boarder has brought them nearer to unity than they were in earlier days.

In no direction have cities departed

farther from ancient landmarks than in hired servants. Foreigners sweep, dust, cook, wait in most houses. French maids flit through the rooms and French nurses take the children out. "Help" has made room for servants, because the foreign element has made helping to mean service. It belongs to the new era of steam and electricity. If the old sailing vessels had remained, so also would the old "help." It would take ages to bring the service-bearers of the other continent here by primitive means of transportation. Former times were not better than these, nor former manners, any more than were the two-wheeled chaise, and sailing ship. The remote prototype¹ of the modern boy doubtless plucked his cap off hurriedly whenever he met a grand dame riding along in chaise or lumbering family coach,—equipages which now would call out a mischievous rabble on streets where my lady of to-day rides in modern state.

Railroads, trusts, syndicates, the hurly-burly of trade and speculation make New England cities much after the same pattern as all others: mettlesome, eager, dashing. Business interests and alliances modify social relations; still intellect and the blood of the father, as a rule, hold their own against all comers for social favor. There is a pride of ancestry, of tradition, which sets apart social leaders in town and city. There is a prim holding off from new people, a discreet pause before admitting them into close relations. Cities are centers of literary power—homes of art. Fashion is there, also, surrounded by her merry, brilliant train. Breakfasts, dinners, luncheons, teas, theater and concert parties followed by dainty suppers, musicales,² and the inherited grand reception with its elegant march of diamonds and laces, keep the gay and captivating sparkle of society constantly in evidence. But lustrous gems and shimmering robes wait upon nobler things. Beneath their glow loving charities meet; helps to the young, the stranger, the erring, the suffering. Descendants of grand dames and grand sires, who wore clocked³ silk hose and stiff brocade, or ruffled shirt and velvet suit, still rule the towns, but they delight

more to pour tea from delicately sprigged china cups for mercy's sake than they do in receiving favored guests under soft lights to the music of viols.

Clubdom is of all sorts. Merchants' and bankers' clubs, political and social clubs, town and country clubs, state, art, literary, history, current events, and even clubs of dolorous thirteen; federated and unfederated—they are as thick as blueberries on the hills. Whatever may be true as to others, those clubs, which aim at culture and improvement have a social right to existence. Athletics for both sexes became long since a habit in cities of much size.

The riding school, where the modern girl strives to attain the firmness of seat in the saddle and resolute grasp of bridle-rein which distinguished her great-grandmother when that dear old lady's horse cantered ten miles over hill and dale bearing its mistress on a visit to a *near* neighbor, is beset and menaced on all sides by bicycle academies. Wheels are a settled custom, spinning along on noiseless journeys for service, for amusement, for strength of nerve, muscle, and brain, but they must give place to snow and ice. New England loves her winter, and snow roadways are carefully kept near all her cities. Their glistening reaches are covered on crisp, sunny days with soft-cushioned steel-shod sleighs, drawn by horses which spurn the snow beneath their winged feet. Gay colors flash from underneath thick robes; dashes of red and yellow, rose and violet, from scarf and plume of merry sleighers, dot all the way. Once in a while these gay equipages meet a grave turnout drawn toward some invalid retreat, or a great sleigh full of laughing children returning to homes where good men and women take the place of parents dead, or worse, or to their own abodes in a college settlement. The carnival goes on till spring opens suburban lake and river to swain and maid, who bring them back to life with songs and laughter, dip of oars and flirtation.

On moonshiny evenings dwellers in small cities practice driving out for supper to some farmhouse, where the summer boarder has been followed by large parlor and dining

room. The traditional repast of cold meats, brown bread, "riz bread," mince pie and doughnuts, made more toothsome by coffee brewed from kernels fresh ground in a fragrant mortar, and made velvet smooth to the taste by cream skimmed from the pan shortly before using, is gone. Cream is not quite out of date, but the coffee, roasted the morning beforehand in an iron basin set on live embers drawn from under a lazily charring back-log, "comes up among the missing." Concerning that we hear only the dreary croak of Poe's raven, "Nevermore." Their menu of oysters, salads, ices, and confectioner's cake, shows just how far New England has gone down into the valley of humiliation on the food line.

After supper, old-fashioned games yield to a dance or whist or both; though it may be truly chronicled that our ancestors themselves danced and played, pastimes at this day would have just begun when our gay grandsires would have donned their half-high wool hats and short-waisted, belted surtouts⁴ and been clattering up to the door, with horses champing their bits and shaking music from great bells strung around their graceful necks, while their young masters handed the red-mitted, full-cloaked girls into the sleighs and tucked buffalo and bearskin close to quilted hoods before taking the homeward road.

Our beautiful midsummers entice from cities every mortal who can leave home. From spring until late autumn country towns are full of city life. Elegant hotels and farm houses are filled with guests. Cottages spring up by lakeside, on islands large and small, by seashore and on hills. It has become the settled custom of the city to go, and of the country to receive. This flitting of the city to woods and streams has made new customs for New England hill folk in many ways. Freakish, unkempt people, who speak nasally and move like pointed rails, have served altogether more than truth allows to point New England anecdote. Such people exist within her limits, as they do everywhere else, but they are not *typical* of its manners and habits any more than wild sorrel and pigweed are of its crops.

She has children who talk through their noses, who say "caow" for cow and such like phrasing, but they are less plentiful than the "yarns" spun about them. They must live far away from lines of travel and beyond sound of the locomotive's whistle, in out of the way places where only hunters and fishermen go, where the summer boarder has never set up his standard. But that element pervades Yankeeland; it has modified farm and village life greatly. It carries much from the metropolis besides money and family, for instance, polished manners and lovely modes which are copied in winter by country belles. The capitalist carries ambition, of a speculative kind, to many young men. A Yankee always seemed possessed to buy, or sell, or "swap" something. Boys once exchanged strings, wooden combs, and woodchuck skins, growing up to build sawmills, keep store, and go "out West" to buy whatever came in their way. Now boys dicker in toy cars, engines, banks, and develop into men who buy railroads, own mines, and search the round world over for a novel and *paying* investment. But before summer boarders were ever heard of, families in many small towns and hamlets as well as large villages retained as inherited gifts the old-time deferent courtesy, brilliant wit, love of debate and aptness of speech which characterized their ancestry. They might drop the *g* and *d* of words but never their manners.

The artist's canvas and poet's rhythm have glinted old farm houses with elusive lights of romance, and rightly too. Mechanic arts have done away with primitive methods upon farms. Wooden plows with "boughten" iron noses have given place to new patents, and farmers want the latest and best. Horse power and machinery sow, reap, and bind their grain; they have hushed the songs of the threshing floor. Few young men sit now upon the front-yard grass at twilight whittling out wooden rake teeth, or cutting heel straps for scythe snaths. They are oftener in the parlor singing beside a daughter of the house.

The "fore room" has gone, too,—just a parlor left, like all the rest of the world.

E-Dec.

Cheese and butter making promise to follow the wool wheel and distaff into oblivion. The spruce red churn and its resolute dasher, the creaking cheese press with sage and tansy odors, have at least gone back on the hills, away from the insatiate maw of creameries and their new-fangled machinery. Sewing machines hum over hem and seam which deft fingers used to stitch, and knitting needles lose their temper before stores of mill-knit hose and gloves. Machinery indoors and out has liberated children from many a hard stent.⁵ Its click and hum teach them the law of advancement; it pushes mind and body forward. Primitive "help" has found its outlet. It is in colleges and technological schools; it is stationed along the lines of art, of science, of law, of literature; it taps the telegraph keys and plays upon the typewriter. It has departed as a physical force, to reappear as a mental power.

Chautauqua circles are a new custom abounding in Yankeedom. They bind villages, hamlets, and country school districts to the world of thought and endeavor. They possess a cheery, social character which makes them welcome comers in any community. They are a sort of home academy for both sexes, fascinating as those of long ago always were.

Lyceums, those early exchanges of wit and wisdom amid whose debates many a man equipped himself for high service as orator and advocate, finds its complement after many years in the grange. Many features of their meetings are similar to those formerly seen in cobwebby lyceum halls. There, again, one hears sharp debate upon topics of state and national concern. Home and neighborhood life and sports feel the mutations that close settlement and increasing push from outside always bring, but home holds its sacred place as the holiest spot on earth outside the temples of God. Home, church, school, the olden trinity, made the new helps and methods possible, and dominate everywhere. Youth and hope and love walk in and out the doors as of yore. Latchstrings⁶ are ever out, and welcomes, warm and hearty as those of a

hundred years ago, greet kindred, friend, or stranger. There abides still among the hills the ancient esteem of sterling character, the primitive love of fair play, and, where outside men have not done their worst, the time-honored hate of bribers and bribe-takers. The old-time repression and shyness linger still, as well as an interest in everybody and for everybody. Borrowing, lending, and "swapping," together with delightful "neighboring," go on among farmer folk. Women take their work and walk a mile to spend a day; perhaps even patchwork appears once in a while on state occasion. The dear sweet spice of gossip is current yet, though tittle-tattle may be fallen into shade; but so have knitting sheaths and snuff boxes. Apple bees, spelling schools, and quiltings are now rare as a piece of homemade tansy cheese, but away back from rail and telegraph they flourish something like those in elder times, but spelling schools have lost the quaint custom of speaking pieces, and apples are no more pared by hand or homemade parer.

In such far away places girls and boys slide down the fields over sparkling crusts, upon sleds which plainly evolved from the "iron runner" of their grandsires. Also, amid like environment, merry, oh, so merry! sugaring parties tramp over crisp snow crust, until they come into maple woods and to a camp, where crotched sticks hold up a five-pail kettle of seething sap. Beside it a small kettle half filled with syrup hangs low over embers or burning chips, until the creamy, frothy nectar within is "sugared off." Then follows the fun and frolic; happy people running in the bracing air and glorious sunlight, flitting here and there among brown tree trunks. Ah! it wakes the pulses, and stirs the heart with true deep worship of those Yankee hills, so grand, yet wonted to such homely uses.

After all, in this day of grace, when neither science nor fashion "stays put" long, one would more likely ride over a very comfortable wood road to a cosy sap house, inside which huge, shallow sap pans sat upon low brick fireplaces. Good crockery and forks would shadow the memory of tin pans and wooden "spuds." One might not go into woods at all, but be invited to a sugar party in a well appointed dining room, while the tinkle, tinkle of viol strings called to laughing couples around the maple candy.

Among country folks, winter evening visits, dear, "old-timey," gossippy, are not obsolete. Boys sometimes shell corn and learn lessons for the next day's school, while their parents jog along behind a sedate horse a mile or so to a neighbor's for a chat concerning domestic affairs in house and barn, followed by a restful debate over politics, general and personal.

Youth delights in sleigh rides much after the manner of traditional lads and lassies, but the picturesque old red pung was used for kindlings long ago, and famous big sleigh bells keep company with spiders in the garret. Merry parties sing as they glide along, but the demisemiquavers of an earlier day, which rolled out on the biting air mostly in hymns, though sometimes singing,

"The rose that all are praising,"

or

"You tell me I am old and my hair is growing gray," are lost beyond the hills. At heartsome gatherings, nowadays, they still parch corn, name luscious Baldwin or winter-sweet, wherever checkers and fox-and-geese have not been followed out of fashion by fireplaces; and that very fireplace of our forefathers, wholesome, full of sacred and bewitching memories, is gradually returning to New England.

(End of Required Reading for December.)

A COLONIAL CHRISTMAS IN THE RED HILLS OF GEORGIA.

BY MISS E. F. ANDREWS.

"CHRIMUS gif, marster, Chri'mus gif, mistis, Chri'mus gif, Miss Kitty, Chri'mus gif! Chri'mus gif! Chri'mus gif!" and a dozen little woolly heads came bobbing over the low rail fence that separated the "quarter" from the "big house," and the next moment as many pair of little black feet were scampering down the open hallway that ran clear through the great log barrack of a dwelling, from end to end, toward Squire Benton's bedroom door. The first faint streaks of the tardy winter dawn were just beginning to appear in the east, but there was no need of the "morning horn" to set the whole plantation astir betimes on this most joyous day of all the year. Cannon crackers and sand torpedoes had not yet been invented for the confusion of timid nerves, but the tooting of rams' horns and cows' horns, aided by the bursting of inflated bladders, if Christmas happened to fall anywhere near hog-killing time, made a din that would not have suffered by comparison with the holiday performances of the modern small boy.*

The "quarter" was not long in awaking to a sense of its privileges, and amid the noise of the tooting and tramping and singing and shooting could be distinguished the ever recurring watchword of the day, "Chri'mus gif! Chri'mus gif!" followed by the loud "yah-yahs" of the bystanders as the unwary victim who had allowed himself to be caught reluctantly drew forth his last "chaw terbacker" or a cherished bit of a knife blade to pay the inevitable forfeit. But never mind; the crestfallen bankrupt would not be slow to recover his losses, for the white folks would soon be astir, and they were fair game for everybody. Nothing less than a shining silver "thrip," or a whole plug

of tobacco, was expected of any and all the "buckrah" into whose ear a "Chri'mus gif!" could be shouted.

Meanwhile, the little rabble that were making for the squire's door had been attacked in turn from the rear, and driven from the field by Maum Judy, minister of the interior to the Benton household, who came bustling in from her cabin at this juncture, and put the whole band to rout at the point of the bayonet, the bayonet being represented, in this instance, by the butt of Maum Judy's broom.

"Ain' you got no mo' manners 'n dat?" she cried, laying about her right and left with her favorite weapon, "to come here disrillin' er de white folks at dis time er day? Git along wid you, an' wait tell sunup fo' you begins pesterin' er de white folks wid yo' racket."

Having thus cleared the field, she opened the door just wide enough to pop her own head in and shout a deafening "Chri'mus gif!" at the sleeping squire and his wife, and then, remembering that discretion is the better part of valor, hastily retreated toward the open door of the parlor, where Uncle Peter, her colleague in the administration of affairs, was engaged in trying to start a blaze with the embers left from last night's fire.

"I's done cotched marster an' mistis bofe," she chuckled, seating herself before the embers, at which Uncle Peter, crouched on all fours, was puffing away like a pair of animated bellows, "an' now I'se a gwineter watch fur Miss Kitty an' Marse Hal."

"Me too," wheezed Peter between the vigorous puffs that inflated his cheeks. "Dar'll be a lot on 'em fur us to ketch, (puff) ef all dem white folks (puff, puff) what marster's done 'vited to tek Chri'mus here comes (pu—ff)."

"Dasso," answered Maum Judy, resting her broom across her knees while she began leisurely adjusting her head-handkerchief,

* The southern small boy has a singularly inappropriate custom of celebrating the advent of "Peace on earth, good will toward men," by the shooting of firecrackers, and the production of all the excruciating noises that the small boy's ingenuity can devise.

"I heerd marster tell Marse Hal dat de whole neighborhood was a comin', fum over de river in Ca'liny, clear up to Heard's Fo't, and Miss Kitty says you mus' kin'le fires dis mawnin' in de three new cabins wat marster had built las' week to discommode 'em, so's to git 'em wa'med up good fo' night. I tell yer what, man, dar woan be no time fur niggers to go foolin' roun' dis house to-day."

"Yeh, yeh, dat de trufe," assented Peter, propping himself against the jamb and spreading his hands before the blaze his efforts had started by this time. "Hi! what a sight er vittles dey gwineter have," he added, his mouth watering in anticipation. "Marse Hal an' yaller Jim brought in seven wild turkeys fum de pen yistiddy, an' I heerd Miss Kitty tell Louisa to kill three dozen chick'ns, let alone de roas' pig an' de apple sass, an' de poun' cake, an' tater pone—"

"An' Marse John's gwineter fetch a whole bar'l er sugar in de waggin fum Augusty," put in Maum Judy, eagerly.

"An' I spec' he'll bring de Chri'mus presents fur us all, too," added Uncle Peter with a knowing wink. "What you reckon you gwineter git?"

"Peter, you rascal," shouted an impatient voice from behind the thin board partition that separated the parlor from Squire Benton's sleeping room, "hold that everlasting tongue of yours, and get my shoes blacked, or I'll break your head for you."

"Yessir, marster, Yessir! I'se a gwineter fetch 'em right away; I jes' could n't mek dis here fire burn," cried Uncle Peter, gathering himself up and scuttling off to the kitchen, while Maum Judy hastily put the finishing touches to her head-handkerchief, and began to ply her broom with a vigor that made the dust fly like a young whirlwind.

The aspect of the room was much more comfortable than the rude exterior of the dwelling, a low, spreading structure formed by a succession of double log cabins with a broad open passageway running between them, would have seemed to indicate. The floor was covered with one of the gay rag carpets that our great-grandmothers knew how to weave so deftly; the chintz drapery

of the great high-backed sofa was as fresh and clean as a nun's bib, and the two brass candlesticks on the mantel glittered like gold. The rude board walls were neatly whitewashed and adorned with wonderful portraits of Squire Benton and his wife standing under a navy blue sky enjoying the prospect of a pea green sea, and of their two eldest boys, each holding out a brown velvet cup in one hand, as if soliciting a contribution, though I believe they were supposed only to be making their best bows. But the most remarkable object in the room was an old-fashioned spinet, the property of the squire's sister, Miss Kitty Benton, that had been hauled all the way from Virginia on a wagon, and was still capable of emitting sounds that Miss Kitty and her friends honestly took for music.

Maum Judy had just brought her cyclone of dust to a culmination when a side door near the chimney gently opened and a sweet-faced lady, in age anywhere from twenty-eight to thirty, stepped into the room with a basket full of ginger cakes, red apples, and mysterious paper parcels on her arm. The boisterous "Chri'mus gif, Miss Kitty!" that greeted her appearance was promptly responded to with one of the packages, which Miss Kitty had evidently prepared in anticipation; and then, when Maum Judy had sufficiently admired a brilliant new bandanna that was disclosed from under the paper wrapping, and had hugged the giver several times with an effusiveness that threatened serious detriment to the contents of the basket, Miss Kitty, coughing and blinking from the dust, managed to make her escape through the opposite door into the fresh air outside.

As she stepped out into the entry, she encountered the squire, her brother, coming from his chamber, freshly washed and shaved and clad in a brand new suit of homemade jeans.

"Happy Christmas, sis, happy Christmas!" he cried, holding out both hands and giving hers a double grip that fairly made her fingers ache. "This is more like a good old Virginia winter than any spell of weather I've felt since we came out to Georgia," he

continued, rubbing his hands with satisfaction as the crisp morning air came whisking through the open corridor and tweaked him familiarly by the nose. "You must make them niggers stir round and get everything ready in time; the company will begin to come in early, I reckon, for folks ain't used to such cold weather down here, and the roads are mighty bad to travel after dark."

"I hope John will get home with the wagons before night," said Miss Kitty, glancing a little nervously down the long red lane in front of the house, where the great clods of red clay spued up by last night's frost lay packed in the half-frozen ruts. "I'm afraid there wont be white sugar enough to sift over the pies, without the three new loaves he is to bring from Augusta."

"Oh, you need n't pester yourself about him; he'll be on hand in time," said the squire, casting his eyes up at the cold winter sky, now beginning to blush like a girl under the first kisses of the morning sun. "He camped at Big Lick church last night, I reckon, and unless the creek should be too high for him to cross, he ought to reach home at least an hour by sun."

The arrival of a wagon train from Augusta was a momentous event, at any time, in the Mossy Creek colony, but especially so at Christmas, when the labors of the year had reaped their reward and the colonist could indulge his family in the few luxuries their rude life afforded.

These people were the advance guard of the straggling bands that began, in the last decade before the Revolution, to push their way from the older colonies into the great unoccupied region lying north of the parish of St. Paul's, as the territory around what is now the city of Augusta, Georgia, was then called. They had maintained themselves on rather a precarious footing for the first few years, but now that Governor Wright's treaty with the Indians had opened the whole country as far as Broad River, and the new settlement had been made at Fort Heard, full twenty miles to the north of them, they felt that they could at last enjoy some of the comfort and security of civilized

life. Squire Benton, the richest and most important personage in the community, had led the way by inviting all the neighbors to a Christmas party, and when your neighbor happens to be everybody within twenty miles, and the guests are expected to stay twenty-four hours, at least, and to bring their servants and babies and horses and dogs along with them, such an invitation means something, even in a sparsely settled district.

Miss Kitty was as busy all day as a sparrow in a hedgerow. Mrs. Benton was in feeble health, having manifested a tendency to consumption some years before, and the squire had sought a home in the new southern colony on her account. Though much benefited by the change, she was not yet able to take an active part in the management of household affairs, and so the chief burden of preparation fell upon the squire's sister. And Miss Kitty was quite equal to the occasion; such potato pone, such persimmon bread, such pound cake and mince pies and sweet wafers would have done credit to the notablest matron in the settlement, and the roast pig at the head of the table, with the apple in his mouth and the two ripe chinquapins for eyes, was a bit of realistic art the memory of which lingered in the social traditions of Mossy Creek for many a day afterward. Mrs. Elijah Clarke declared that she had never seen the like before, and Mrs. Micajah Williams, whose thrifty soul it grieved to see such a pattern of domestic virtue unappropriated, sighed for the twentieth time what a pity it was that Kitty Benton had never married!

Indeed, the question why Kitty Benton had never married was a standing puzzle to the gossips of half the parish, for not only was she a very handsome woman still, in spite of her thirty years, but as the possessor in her own right of a spinet, four feather beds, a score of patchwork quilts and fifteen "likely niggers," she was a match not to be despised, even had marriageable women been as much of a surplus product in the baby colony of Georgia as they are to-day in the Empire State of the South. Some new arrivals that had lately come out from the Benton neighborhood in the mother

colony pretended to explain the mystery by circulating a scandalous story to the effect that when a girl, Kitty Benton had committed the absurdity of falling in love with the son of her father's overseer. The boy was very handsome, it was said, and remarkably clever, and the old squire had taken such a liking to him that he proposed to have him educated along with his own sons; but when he found that his plebeian *protégé* was repaying his kindness by stealing the affections of his daughter, the angry father promptly dismissed the offender from his household and bundled his daughter off to her aunt in Philadelphia, where she was kept learning music and embroidery until she had time to come to her senses and forget her foolish love affair.

Whether this story were true or false, certain it is that pretty Kitty Benton had never married, but after the old squire's death had followed her brother in his migration to the far off southern colony, where she had taken upon herself the duties of the invalid wife, and become a ministering angel in the household.

By sundown the last guest had arrived. The young women got themselves into their best frocks; the young gallants who were so fortunate as to possess a pair of "sto'" shoes, put them on, and then everybody was ready for action. Our ancestors were a literal-minded folk, and when invited to an evening entertainment did not wait till the small hours of the next morning to begin enjoying themselves, but came and ate their supper before dark, danced or played "puss in the corner" and "many, many stars" till nine o'clock, and by ten were tucked snugly away in bed, dreaming of the venison steaks and turkey giblets they were to have for breakfast.

In the meantime it had already grown dark and John had not yet arrived with the wagons. Miss Kitty waited supper half an hour in the hope that he might appear, and then the squire began to grow impatient and ordered Uncle Peter to take a mule and go in quest of the belated travelers. Then after another half hour or so Big Henry was sent out after Uncle Peter, and the squire was

finally about to dispatch his second son, Hal, on the trail of Big Henry, when to the relief of all concerned, just as supper was over and the company was returning to the drawing-room, both messengers came galloping up the hill together with news that Marse John and the wagons were close behind, and that the great Augusta lawyer, James Oliver Terrell, member of the provincial assembly and colonel of the parish militia, was coming along with them.

This news created no small stir. Everybody crowded into the entry to get a look at the great man. Troops of darkeys, big and little, ran tumbling over one another into the front yard, some with lighted torches, some with armfuls of pine knots to feed the fires which had been kindled around the house since sunset and about which the negro drivers were gathered, roasting potatoes, eating "goobers," and exchanging the gossip of the neighborhood.

While her brother was receiving the distinguished guest, Miss Kitty went back to the pantry to see about getting supper for him. Here she was speedily sought out by John, whom the scent of Christmas pies brought galloping to the scene like a young colt to the corn crib. His thoughts seemed to be about equally divided between the attractions of the pantry and the merits of his new acquaintance, whose praises were the principal theme of his discourse as he poured the story of his recent adventures into the sympathetic ear of his aunt.

"Why, Aunt Kitty," he declared, making a rather unsuccessful effort not to swallow his words along with the chunk of potato pone to which he had helped himself, "as soon as ever he saw our name on the papers that pa had told me to carry him, about the Benton land claim, he stopped reading all of a sudden and asked if our people were from Fauquier County; and when I said yes, and told him how you loved to talk to us boys about the old home, he jumped like a bee had stung him (Give me some of that mince pie, Cindy), and asked if you were married, and when——"

"That was a very impertinent question, interrupted Miss Kitty in a tone of severity,

"I hope you didn't answer it, John."

"I told him," said John, eyeing with satisfaction the great hollow crescent his teeth had just carved out of the slice of pie passed him by Cindy, "that you did n't like men; you had even refused the minister when he courted you last summer, and if you would n't have him, I knew you wouldn't have anybody."

Miss Kitty smiled and nodded her head approvingly. She had had experiences with men in her day, and experience had made her discreet.

"That was right, John; you made a very sensible reply," she answered with quiet emphasis. "And what did he say next?" continued Miss Kitty, unconsciously betraying a lurking curiosity with regard to the interesting stranger.

"He laughed," said John, looking round, seeking what else he might devour; "not out loud, you know, but way down in his breast and in his eyes and all over his face; and he shook hands with me a second time and asked me to take dinner with him at the tavern where he boards, and then shook hands over again and said 'pa's case was a very important one and that he would have to come out to Mossy Creek and talk it over with pa himself. And he's going to gain it for him, too,'" continued John, triumphantly. "He knows everything. He can track a deer equal to an Injun, and such a shot you never saw! He beats Billy Weaver. That's how we come to be so late getting home. We stopped to follow a trail t' other side o' Big Lick church, and there are two fine gobblers and a buck in the wagon that we brought down at the first shot."

There is no telling how long John would have rambled on about his hunting exploits if a savor of broiled turkey and venison steak from the dining room had not announced that supper was ready. Miss Kitty, determined not to throw herself in the way of a stranger who had manifested, to say the least of it, an unwarrantable curiosity about her affairs, sent for Mrs. Benton to preside at the table while she returned to her guests in the parlor without having yet encountered the great man.

The dancers had already assembled in the broad hallway, which had been curtained in for their use by stretching bedquilts across the open ends to keep the cold out. The more sedate among the guests sat around the wall to look on while the young men led out their partners, and 'Ginny Dick, the plantation fiddler,—so called to distinguish him from three others of the same name, Big Dick, Little Dick and Long Dick—mounted a table placed there for the purpose and proceeded to call out the figures.

And that was a dance worth looking at! There was no mincing and sliding and gliding, no exposure of the person in *décolleté* gowns, no promiscuous embracing as in the modern round dance; but only an innocent contact of guileless finger tips, a merry pattering of nimble feet as they wound through the spirited evolutions of the old Virginia reel or the quaint country dances that delighted the simple souls of our great-grandmothers. And they danced with a will in those days. They were not afraid of spoiling their bangs if they moved too freely, there were no kid gloves and white slippers and chiffon skirts to distract the souls of their wearers; but men in homemade trousers and brogan shoes "cut the pigeon wing"* before girls in calico gowns and blue yarn stockings. And the fiddler! Who could have found it in his heart to refrain from dancing to such music? As well try to resist the Pied Piper of Hamelin. He fiddled all over; he fiddled with his hands and his feet and his head; and the rich, melodious chant with which he accompanied the instrument as he sang out his orders, "Swing them corners!" "Turn yo' pardners!" "Gemmen all sashay to de right!" "P'omonade all to yo' seats!" would almost have served to dance by without the fiddle. Ah! that was music, and that was dancing to warm the very tips of your toes even in an open log cabin on a cold December night. The joyous infection spread to the very darkeys, whose woolly heads were peeping in at every corner, and

* A famous feat of dexterity among rustic dancers, in which the performer made a sudden spring from the floor and described a sort of figure eight with his feet before lighting on *terra firma* again; now out of fashion, I believe, even in the most rural districts.—E. F. A.

Uncle Ephraim, the negro preacher, was caught by one of his deacons unconsciously beating time to the music with both feet.

When the giddy revelers had danced themselves out of breath, they all gathered in the parlor to hear Miss Kitty play the "Battle of Blenheim" on the spinet, an event of scarcely less importance than the dance itself. To do her justice, Miss Kitty would rather have selected something else, but to the honest colonists of Mossy Creek, the "Battle of Blenheim" was the very apotheosis of music, and so the old spinet moaned and rattled and thundered under the galloping of cavalry, the groans of the dying and the roar of artillery, until the listeners held their breaths in wonder and admiration.

The battle happily ended without serious damage to anybody (they had stout nerves in those days), Miss Kitty was next called upon for a song. She had just begun the opening stanza of "Barbara Allen," when Lawyer Terrell, having finished his supper and made such changes in his toilet as the long journey he had taken rendered necessary, appeared in the doorway accompanied by the squire. He was a tall, handsome man, in the prime of middle life, and his ruffled shirt and "sto' clo'es" gave him an air of distinction that was very imposing in the eyes of the homespun-clad rustics of Mossy Creek. As for the great man himself, his eyes were too intent upon Kitty Benton's face to take any note of the impression his own appearance had created. He halted in the doorway, in order, as he said, not to disturb the music, so that Miss Kitty was not aware of his presence until she had finished her song and, looking up from her notebook, their eyes met.

And then a strange thing happened. Springing from her chair with a cry of sudden joy and wonder, she advanced a step towards the stranger and then fell back in a dead faint. Before anyone could well realize what had taken place, Terrell was at her side, supporting her fainting form in his arms.

"Forgive me, Kitty," he cried, "I did not think you would know me again after so many years, or I would not have come upon

you in this way. Then, as she slowly opened her eyes, he bent down and whispered something in her ear. She answered by clinging closer to him, and with his arm still around her he turned and addressed his astonished host.

"Joe Benton, do you remember your old playmate, Jim Oliver, who was——"

"Jim Oliver? You Jim Oliver!" interrupted the squire, who had stood staring in helpless amazement during these proceedings. "Why, bless my soul, I do see the favor now," he added, staggering forward and scanning Terrell's face closely.

"Yes, I am, or rather I was James Oliver," continued the great man, with quiet dignity, "but do not think that I have come sneaking here under an assumed name; the one I now bear is mine by right of birth, though I did not know the fact till after I had arrived at man's estate. My own father having died a few weeks after landing in the Virginia plantations my mother married again and I was adopted by my step-father, William Oliver, who afterwards became your father's overseer, and I grew up believing myself his son. I did not make myself known to you at once, because I wished first to learn if there was any hope of attaining the real object of my visit here," glancing tenderly at Kitty, "and if not, to go away unpitied and unknown as I had come.

"But now that I have learned all I wanted to know," he continued, drawing his old sweetheart closer to his side, "now, that I have earned the right to claim her and can offer her a name and place in the world as good as her own, I proclaim, before all the world, that I have come here to ask the woman I have always loved to be my wife. I would rather win her with the consent and approbation of her friends, if that may be, but if not, I must ask you to remember that we are no longer children to be ruled by the will of others; I appeal to Kitty herself," fixing his handsome gray eyes upon her with a look of proud confidence, "and will abide by her decision."

I am afraid it was a very absurd thing for an "old maid" of thirty to make such a display of her feelings, but Miss Kitty threw her

arms around her brother's neck and began to weep for very joy. And the squire and the lawyer shook hands without more ado, and John overturned three chairs and broke a cut glass lamp shade in his eagerness to extend the right hand of fellowship to this new applicant for membership in the family cir-

cle; and Maum Judy hugged her "chile," as she still persisted in calling Miss Kitty, till they were both out of breath, and Uncle Peter caught the happy lover "Chri'mus gif" for the nineteenth time, and everybody declared that it was the happiest Christmas ever known in the Mossy Creek settlement.

THE SCIENCE OF PHYSIOLOGY TO-DAY.

BY A. MOSSO.

TRANSLATED FOR "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FROM THE ITALIAN "NUOVA ANTOLOGIA."

WHEN we speak of the progress of science during the nineteenth century we are accustomed to refer almost exclusively to the applied sciences, to the sciences of analysis and engineering, the domain of chemistry and physics in the broadest and most practical meaning of those terms. Our minds are attracted and captivated by the tremendous results obtained by the application of scientific theories and discoveries to the construction of machinery, which in its operation has a direct bearing on our comforts and luxuries—for they are indeed luxuries—bestowed so freely on our daily existence, when we compare them to the methods of life known to our grandfathers. And so we are in the main neglectful of that progress in science which concerns our less material natures, even of the progress that has to do with the welfare and preservation of our own bodies, the science of healing and the science of prevention, which we may assume to be physiology.

Physiology has taken great strides in the last fifty years. And it is to-day advancing so rapidly that the work of one man at the present time is of more importance to its development than was formerly the work of many men extending through entire centuries. At the root and base of all this growth is the nurture furnished physiology by its cognate science of biology, if indeed biology may not be now rightly held to be the fostering parent of physiology.

Fifty years ago the modern spirit of biology began to manifest itself. Humboldt, Johann

Müller, and Liebig were among the first to feel its inspiration. They were also the greatest physiologists, in Germany at least, of the first half of our century. They maintained that living organisms were governed by chemical and physical forces different from those which govern inorganic nature. Holding that science was impotent to explain the phenomena of life, they believed that animals and man lived on through some secret power, which gave to the processes that take place in the living body a different impulse from the one they exercised outside that body. Only with death would the atoms regain their natural attractions and form other products. This position the putrefaction of organisms would abundantly prove.

Here we come upon the great problem of physiology—death. Here religion and philosophy hold their gaze most intently. That sudden pallor of the body, that sudden cessation of feeling and motion, that coldness quickly supervening and the extinction within us of every visible energy, must have suggested the thought that in death a secret force withdrew itself from the body. The idea of a soul, united for a time only with the matter of the organism, must have presented itself to the mind before any other explanation. It is so simple a conception that it enfolds our reason and fancy as the most beautiful of elementary suppositions. With all peoples the primitive idea of the existence of the soul, and the sentiment of religion, must have arisen from the contemplation of death.

But science has now led us so far that we can speak of life and death, can study them and discuss their essence and origin, apart from any considerations of a religious nature. Müller, the greatest of the physiologists who studied the soul, was a pantheist and one of the most fervent admirers of Giordano Bruno. This is the way he expresses himself when he wishes to look into the principle of life:

"That harmony which of necessity binds together the organs into one whole cannot be maintained without the influence of a force which acts and penetrates into the whole organism, which does not depend on the individual parts; and this force exists before the harmonic members of the whole can exist. This creative, reasonable force is manifested in every animal according to rigid laws, as the nature of every animal demands."

Against such a doctrine Carl Ludwig protested, inaugurating with Du Bois-Reymond, Helmholtz, and Brücke, a new era in modern physiology. Ludwig's scientific tendency appears clearly at the very first page of his treatise (which saw the light more than a generation ago):

"When we divide and subdivide the organism of animals we finally arrive at a limited number of chemical atoms, and we draw the conclusion that all the functions of the animal body are the product of the attraction and repulsion of these primary entities. This conclusion becomes absolute, when we demonstrate with mathematical accuracy that the elementary parts of the organism are so unlike in tendency, time, and size that all the results of the organism which lives and dies are bound to be derived from their reciprocal action on one another."

The generation now frequenting our schools is so penetrated with the new spirit of this philosophy, with the doctrine of the attraction and repulsion of molecules that it is difficult to understand the effect produced by the first revelation of these views. Wundt, the great Leipzig psychologist, said the impression made on him by this book was never to be forgotten. The comprehension of this monumental work excited him to original researches of his own, and his first attempt at lecturing consisted in explaining and commenting on several chapters of Ludwig's treatise.

"Belief in the vital force is, like belief in other dogmas, a thing which depends much less on scientific conviction than on an in-

tellectual need of certain organizations. And on this account this faith, like faith in dogmas, cannot be wholly rooted out." Thus spoke Du Bois-Reymond in regard to the vital force as early as the end of 1848.

Physiology is the youngest of the sciences, and we ought not to be discouraged if the work of Ludwig, Helmholtz, Claude Bernard, and Du Bois-Reymond has not been sufficient to implant in all minds the conviction that the phenomena of life can be explained by means of the laws which govern universal matter. And neo-vitalism must still be fought. For it has only the appearance of being inspired with the love of scientific research. At bottom it is a suggestion of mysticism.

Certain neo-vitalists draw up a list of phenomena which cannot be explained on chemical principles. Others, less audacious, say that electricity, heat, and light, such as are developed in a living organism, have something about them that is peculiar and different. Therefore they cannot be identified with the electrical and other phenomena which the science of physics investigates. These men covertly assert that animals and plants have something exclusive and special in their innermost parts which gives them their life. To all such we will reply: Yes, it is true, physiology is an organic chemistry and physics; still the mechanism of life must be at the bottom identical with the mechanism which moves the atoms of all matter to be found in nature. Contemplate the history of human thought and you will be convinced of the slowness of its growth. Do not be discouraged if science advances less quickly than your hopes and your irrepressible desire for utilitarianism. He is not worthy of the name of philosopher who to-day profits by our ignorance to create difficulties, to give substance to shadows which to-morrow will gradually fade away.

But the vitalists answer that it is not a question of time, that it is not true we shall finally succeed in explaining by the laws of physics and chemistry those phenomena which are hidden under the mystic veil of life. For, they argue, the greater the advancement of science the more complex do

those things appear which at first seem to be simple. Mechanical conceptions, they claim, are not sufficient to explain life, because we cannot understand the essence and energies of inorganic nature itself. The struggle is wholly in the domain of science, and yet everyone feels that outside the arena where we are fighting an impatient multitude is waiting, which now bestirs itself and now is calm. To this multitude, this crowd of human beings which we call "the people," the severity of our pursuits and researches cannot give that patience which will consent to wait a long time for conclusions. Some, in view of the profound transformation effected by science in modern society, have believed that man's happiness even might be increased, and these now call down maledictions upon science because their dream has not yet been realized. The literary men and the critics, those who write in the daily newspapers and digest the history of the present time in order to make it the food for all the people, have not sufficient education to be able to distinguish materialism from positivism. So much the less can they recognize the charlatans, the dilettanti, and the fanatics among the number of truly learned scientists. For the former bind together errors with truths, audacious and imaginative hypotheses with sure and certified facts.

It would be madness to promise that science will reveal all the secrets of nature. The true physiologists are modest, because they, with all genuine scientists, admit that it is impossible for man to know the inner essence of matter and forces, their origin and the origin of life. The brain of man is not made to comprehend the infinite extension of space, nor the eternity of time, nor the indestructibility of matter. If these confessions are made it is then ridiculous for critics and spiritualists to continue to raise a hue and cry, and solemnly reprove modern science for its powerlessness. We fight vitalism (or mysticism) solely because if it is admitted that there is a force which exists of itself, independent of matter, a force which may be separated from matter or may invade it, governing it by new laws,

if this is admitted, I say, then our notion of the relations between cause and effect must come to an end. Physiology, when it is applied to the study of the nervous system, ought to pursue the same methods employed by the other sciences, without taking into consideration the fact that the phenomena here are of a higher order, and form that complexity of things which we call soul or spirit. We ought to follow in physiology the same criterion which has made the fortune of the other experimental sciences. Critics and literary men, who live far removed from the laboratories, those persons who follow up science in the daily papers, or in books designed to popularize it, cheerfully admit that science has lost its prestige. Few understand the new scientific spirit, few penetrate into its atmosphere or know of what temper are made the real experimenters. The study of life is deepening and broadening to such an extent, that perhaps in the twentieth century no one mind, however vast, will be able to comprehend fully and possess all its ramifications. Whatever be the future of biology, we now to-day know that it has finally found the sure way of the experimental method. However devoid of explanation, and perhaps even inexplicable in their inmost essence, the phenomena of life may be, it is certain that the existence of a single man, wholly given over to study, is sufficient to clear up many things at the present day, by bringing them nearer to us and freeing them from the secrets that at first seemed inscrutable.

Such was the result of the researches of Carl Ludwig, and the history of his career is in good part the history of physiology in the last half of the present century. Professor successively at Marburg, Zürich, Vienna, and Leipzig his chair of zoölogy and physiology was contemporaneous with the progress of all the sciences affecting organic life. Like Spallanzani and Bonnet, Ludwig looked on nature as on a great picture, the most magnificent and beautiful picture which can be shown to man. He felt the deep poetry and charm which are born of the harmony and perfection of hidden things. When with his lens he raised the

veil which covered an unexplored nook of an organism, and his gaze penetrated to where the eye unaided cannot reach, he had outbursts of joy, he shouted exclamations of delight so that we often would hear him from the room near by. And he would remain alone for hours in a state of continual ecstasy, absorbed in the meditation of lofty thoughts, and almost borne above the earth into the sublime regions of the philosophy of nature. As there are artists who, in order to gain a happy inspiration for their pictures, live continually with their models dressed in the costumes in which they wish to represent them, so Ludwig felt the need of contemplating the inner structure of organisms, in order to derive inspiration for fresh researches. To the physiology of the organism has succeeded the physiology of the organs. Here is the school of the future, since it is in the elementary parts that we must search for the real origin of vital phenomena. Haller, who after Spallanzani was the greatest physiologist of the past century, had said that physiology was animate anatomy. Ludwig was convinced that we cannot act upon the organism except by knowing the structure of its elementary parts, and that physiology must complete and strengthen the function of the healthy organs.

In life there are some movements so delicate and so quickly over that the imperfection of our senses is incapable of following them and understanding them. Beyond certain limits the variations of time and space become imperceptible. The memory itself is unsafe for retaining fleeting phenomena. That science should progress, a method of automatic registering was necessary to write down all the phenomena of motion. Such is the graphic method. The palpitation of the heart, the labor of breathing, the trembling of the muscles, the swiftness of blood circulation, the word, the thought, and the perception leave behind an indelible trace of their passage, where this method is employed. There is nothing so fleeting in life and in the universe that the method of automatic registration cannot succeed in attaining it and, I might say, in

holding it so as to make of it a minute analysis and give to it a precise measure. This method is one of the triumphs of the science in the last half century, or more exactly it dates from some experiments made at Marburg by Ludwig in 1846.

Since that time the knowledge acquired by scientific men in regard to the various organs, muscles, nerves, and secretions of the body has been most decisive. And much has been established in regard to their reciprocal action on one another. For instance, it was known from time immemorial that the nervous system exercised an influence on the secretions. The tears which flow from the eyes, the saliva which moistens, now more now less, the mouth, and changes its own make-up according as it is subjected to the influence of pleasing or disagreeable impressions, are facts known to all. But it was believed that the nervous system or the heart modified the secretions only because they distributed the blood among the glands in a different way. When Ludwig began to study this problem it was admitted by all that the secretion of the salivary glands, of the tears, sweat, and so on, was comparable to a simple filtration of liquids through different membranes. Ludwig, however, showed that the nerves act on the cells themselves of the glands, inciting the processes on which the secretions depend. A sudden light broke straightway upon the physiology of the secretions, and to-day all recognize that the nervous system regulates the chemical changes within the cells of the glands. Thus by painstaking and minute investigations the secretive nerves were discovered and finally added to the known nerves of sense and motion.

When the heart has ceased to beat and breathing has stopped, life has not yet fled beyond redemption. The physiologist by intervening can nourish with his devices the various parts of the body, and maintain in some organs their primitive functions even though consciousness has already gone and though the brain be dead. This interval which exists between the extinction of sensibility and the beginning of decay Ludwig took advantage of in order to pry into the

secrets of life. The desire to spare animals their sufferings suggested to him the poetical conception of supplementing with mechanical means the failing strength of the heart. Death as it is disclosed to our eyes is only a partial death. Ludwig thought of infusing new blood, of resuscitating the parts most tenacious of life. From his experiments came the present method of removing the heart of a frog or a turtle, furnishing it with respiratory appliances and studying its regular and continued pulsations. The ultimate result of such an experiment was to show that the heart is the most delicate and the strongest of the bodily organs, because when excited by very weak causes, whether physical or from the domain of feelings and emotions, it always responds with a strong contraction, with the most intense of its palpitations. The name of the American Bowditch is most intimately connected with these conclusions. I myself still recall the keen emotion which I with Ludwig experienced when in our experiments we found that twenty-four hours after death there was life still in the loins, that the functions of the cells there could be renewed even after they had been subjected to an entire day's

freezing. The poetic dream of the resurrection has therefore in its reality the mysterious connection of the organs. The brain alone still baffles the efforts of physiologists, and refuses to awake from the sleep of death.

In recent years the question of vivisection of animals has been a disturbing one to those conducting physiological experiments. It is difficult to convince the public that no experiments can be made on animals which retain the power of sensation. The disturbance which pain causes in the functions of the organism would thwart all scientific results. For it is so great as to make any investigation useless and barren. Suffering should be entirely eliminated from physiological experiments, because the instruments which we use to-day are so delicate as to become unserviceable the moment the animal moves in the least. Consequently etherization and chloroforming should be complete, so as to preclude all possibility of mistaken deductions. For vivisection must be kept above all manner of suspicion, since with every animal which science sacrifices a human life is saved. And in such a verity and sentiment lies the justification as well as the morality of vivisection.

THE RISK IN CHANGING A BUSINESS SITUATION.

BY HARVEY L. BIDDLE.

IF a man learns a business, the experience will be a part of his stock in trade.

It may be worth more than capital or any other factor in a business career. It is invaluable. It shows what such learning costs of time and labor to acquire it; the patient days of toil, and the slow process of absorbing practical ideas,—these are driven into the very marrow of one's being and the experience heightens the value of such knowledge. This implies, of course, that a business has been learned. The superficial knowledge of routine in a business may be obtained by cursory glances and indifferent effort, but a trade—a function in business—must be learned by buckling down to hard work with the brains or hands, or, as a rule, with both.

The division of labor in every trade and every business makes it necessary that one shall be trained as a specialist, as a stenographer, bookkeeper, accountant, salesman, traveling man, engineer, electrician, wheat grower, or stock raiser and so on through the list. In every place there is a call for a person with the practical knowledge of the work to be done. No one man can know all kinds of business. That would be impossible, but every person has the privilege of learning one, two, three, or more kinds of business in the course of an average life time. But learning more than one becomes a provision against the loss of position in one trade. The wisdom of it is seen in this,—that the person may then turn to another

line of things and thus have an opportunity for earning a living for himself and those dependent upon him.

Not a few successful professional men have learned a trade, and while working at it have studied law, theology, or medicine, and from the trade graduated to the profession. When a mechanic will study at night in his room and then think over the subject during the day while at his bench, in his store, or on the street, he is using the same method that the most brilliant students employ in the schools. His mind is brought into contact with books seriously and then he thinks over what he has been studying in his leisure moments. It may be a course of study in science or mathematics, literature or history. Some eminent men have obtained their education after this fashion, and then have graduated from business into a profession, where they became very useful and great men.

But because this has been done successfully by some men, others have supposed that they could change from a trade to a profession and have tried it without having first acquired a fixed habit of industry. Not having remained long enough at one work to learn it well, they have gone from one thing to another, only to meet failure, forgetting that of such people the old sentiment is true, "The rolling stone gathers no moss."

There are only three classes of people who can afford to change from one business to another: first, the universal genius, whose species is rare; second, the man of affairs whose natural tact and skill adapt him to almost any place he may drop into; third, the handworkers who make the great multitude, and must dig for the knowledge they get of a trade, their surroundings, and the people.

The average man with the habit of industry formed may do it. But any man, whatever his attainments or endowments, should be careful about changing from one kind of business to another. The grocery trader cannot become a jeweler in a day. Each is a trade that must be learned by years of observation, study, and toil.

I recently met a man who was serving as a clerk behind a counter in a dry-goods house. He was forty-five years old, in good health, with a promise of long life. I remembered that twenty years before he told me that he possessed \$30,000 in United States government bonds in his own right. So I inquired how he was getting on.

He replied, "I own my money yet and draw my interest semi-annually."

"Why" I asked, "do you serve in this place when you own so much money?"

"Well," he replied, "I decided years ago that I would not make a success in conducting a business myself. I tried it twice on a small scale but did not prosper, so I concluded that that was not the rôle for me to play in the business world. If I had gone on, with my lack of judgment as an independent business man I should probably have lost all of my \$30,000 and no telling where I would be to-day. I thought the matter over carefully and made up my mind that I would take this position as a clerk in this store and earn a salary, and by putting that with my interest I would have a good income for my family and when I grow old I can retire from this place and will have my \$30,000 to live on."

I commended his judgment, for I knew the man. Men are rare who can resist the temptation that ready money presents to try their hands in a business which they have not learned and where a vast majority who make the venture lose all they invest and sometimes are saddled with a debt the rest of their natural lifetimes. I told my friend how wise I thought he was to be contented and industrious and economical and at the same time to be providing for a rainy day or old age.

This love of changing from one thing to another is the bane common in the life of not a few men. It is too frequently made without considering the cost, the dangers, or the probability of a successful issue.

Competition will cross the path of every one who engages in any vocation in life. It will be found in every trade, business, and profession and it is the most subtle opposition that one is obliged to encounter. At

one time it confronts one in the form of a genius and by one stroke destroys the foundation of a business and causes the superstructure to topple and fall. The invention of the sowing machine undermined a hundred thousand tailorshops, scattered the customers, and very largely put men's clothing into the hands of women to be made on the new machine.

The patent office at Washington suggests a hundred thousand inventions that have entered the business arena in competition with labor, the various industries and manufacturing, and supplanted all sorts of business enterprises.

Sometimes a man succeeds in building up a business because he is all powerful, he is alert, enterprising, tactful, progressive, courageous, and venturesome, a good organizer and quick to sense a situation. Such an one will create trade and establish his business. When such a man appears in a community he changes the old situation and conditions that have obtained for years. He is a competitor that must be taken in by the old firm as a partner or he will divide the business and become a partner at long range. Competition observes no law so closely as that of self-preservation. It does not depend on friendship or the law of reciprocity to carry one through. It is a point where human nature asserts itself by taking care of number one.

One may often have a large amount to his credit in a bank and by this will very naturally be led to suppose that if in distress he should overdraw his account the banker's friendly consideration of his former heavy deposit will inure to his advantage. But, no, that is not the way they do business. An overdraft is a crime in the banker's eyes and is treated as such. A bank will be your friend only because you have money to put

into its vaults, and this is true of all business firms and individual business men. At any rate, these are the correct views with which to engage in business with a cold-hearted business world. A self-reliant spirit which begets an intelligent independence of character will prove to be one's stronghold. He who is constantly depending on friends, on his borrowings, or on futures to cancel his bills will not find himself strong in contesting with his fellows for the mastery. Sharp, earnest competition may bring out the best qualities in a man's life and sometimes it advances the man, especially in a profession, or in a vocation where the powers involved are wit, talent, and the prowess of the mind. On the whole, competition is to be welcomed everywhere, but we should not regard it with complacency, unless we win. It may well deter one from fickle changes of vocation, unless nature and acquirements have joined to make one either a genius or a general success. It is always safe to stay in the place where one is, if he is not losing, rather than to change with uncertainty as a chief factor in the new situation.

Staying qualities are of vital importance to one engaged in learning a trade or doing business, and for this quality of character there is no substitute. It must be developed by the man's own will and devotion to his task in life. A young man applied to me twice within eight months for recommendations for positions. I granted his request each time; he secured the places, but of his own accord quit in both instances and came to me the third time for a recommendation. Then I inquired, "Why is it that you change situations so often?" and he said, "Oh, I think I am to be a spare hand in the world." This is the spirit which makes idlers and grows up a generation of tramps.

STUDENT LIFE AT OXFORD, ENGLAND.

BY FRED GRUNDY.

IT is impossible to think of modern Oxford without giving a mental glance to the Oxford of centuries ago. Stand where the four roads meet at Carfax, and you are in the center of a city whose history has been closely interwoven with that of England since the early days of the tenth century.

But without going so far back as that, let us suppose that from this spot you are looking down "The High"—it has been called the finest street in Europe. In three minutes you may reach the Martyrs' Memorial, and bethink you how three and a half centuries ago Ridley, Latimer, and Cranmer burned at the stake in Oxford. No doubt you will think that the tower and walls of St. Martin, the church on your left, are low for the building; but know that they were lowered in the fourth year of the third Edward's reign, "because the citizens galled and annoyed the students from thence with arrows and stones." At once one is back in thought to those strange old days. You are standing in a city of books, where any reputable student may have free access to one of the famous libraries of the world, the Bodleian, and where every Oxonian can get from his own college library what books he may want, and it is hard to realize how in the reign of Edward I. the poor Oxford students found themselves unable to study, for all their books were pawned with the Jews and the king's aid had to be invoked in order to get them back again.

In those days the Oxford student was often a poor man indeed. As he tramped home to all parts of England from the city of learning he became such a nuisance to those from whom he begged his daily bread and nightly shelter that it became necessary to allow those only to appeal for charity who had been granted a properly sealed license to beg.

He was a pugnacious character too, this

old-time undergraduate. In the thirteenth century when he joined the university his matriculation oath was merely a binding of him over to keep the peace. Even down to the end of the sixteenth century statutes were necessary to guard against undue violence, and to this day the Oxford undergraduates may read in the statutes that they may not "wear arms offensive or defensive, by day or night, save those who carry bows and arrows for the purpose of honest recreation."

Tempting as it is to dwell upon these fascinating old days it is full time to consider the latter-day student of Oxford. Originally those who sought the benefits of Oxford's learning lived, such as were not mere boys, very much how and where they liked, though there was of course a central university authority. But in 1264 the collegiate system came to birth, and soon prevailed, owing to its advantages both educational and disciplinary.

To-day the university consists of twenty-one colleges, a few "halls," which for the present purposes may rank as colleges, and the "noncollegiate students." Each college is a distinct and self-governing body, with its own buildings, rules, customs and income. The governing body of the college consists of the "head," known by different titles in different colleges, such as the "dean of Christ Church," "master of Balliol," "principal of Jesus," "provost of Queen's," etc., and with him a certain number of "fellows." The head is selected by the fellows, who are themselves a co-operative body. These with the "tutors"—part of the college teaching staff, but not fellows—form a body, called by the undergraduate the "dons," and known officially as the "senior members of the University."

The colleges, roughly speaking, combine to form the university, at the head of which is the chancellor, an honorary life office, at

present held by the Marquis of Salisbury. The practical head of the university is the vice chancellor, an office to which the colleges in turn elect their own head every five years. The only other university officials that much concern the undergraduate are the proctors—and they concern him deeply at times. These proctors are the guardians of university discipline; they are two in number, the senior and junior, and are appointed by the colleges in turn, holding office for a year. It should be remembered that when a college is spoken of as making appointments, etc., the fellows alone are referred to. Each proctor nominates two assistants, who are known as proproctors. These six important officials are paid by the university, and are always fellows or tutors of some college.

Some explanation of the term "non-collegiate student," may

be necessary. Previous to 1868, to become a member of the university necessitated the joining of a college or hall. In that year a body of delegates was appointed to hold authority over students who were admitted to the full privileges of the university without being members of any college. The expenses of a university career are in every

way very considerably less to the "unattached" student than to the collegian, and in this fact lies the *raison d'être* of the system. The unattached are now a large body, numbering some two hundred and fifty, who have their clubs, athletic and social, on similar lines to those of the colleges.

The total number of resident undergraduates in Oxford is rather over three thousand, divided among the various colleges, Christ Church with two hundred and ninety-five (in 1893) being the greatest both in number and prestige.

One of the most noteworthy features of modern Oxford is the generosity with which she holds out a helping hand to the clever youth who is handicapped by poverty. If he have but the brains the university will find him the money for his career.

All colleges offer for open competition numerous schol-

arships in most branches of study, worth as a rule £80 a year, sometimes more; nearly every school in the kingdom has similar "leaving" scholarships, to be held at one of the universities by worthy pupils; and, in addition, once a clever man gets to Oxford there are numerous prizes, exhibitions, and scholarships for which he may compete,



TOM TOWER.

and in many cases they are restricted to those who can show they are in need of pecuniary aid.

Before leaving school, a boy, if he have not been elected to a scholarship, has first to choose which college he will join. Next he has to persuade this college to accept him. Some colleges require a higher standard than others, but as a rule it is not a difficult matter to join any college you wish. A good reputation as a public school athlete is no mean recommendation to the authorities of a college, though perhaps they would not openly admit it.

Accepted by the college, the next step in the freshman's career is to be made a member of the university. This ceremony is called "matriculation." Within fifteen days of his admission to a college he is taken with his fellow-freshmen, all in cap and gown, with black coats and white neckties, before the vice chancellor, who presents each one with a book of the

rolls he returns to college a full member of of the ancient University of Oxford.

A man qualifies himself for the degree of B. A. (*Artium Baculator*) in two ways, by residence and by examination. The university requires that he shall have spent at least twelve terms in residence from the date of matriculation, and have passed certain examinations. The college demands that he shall have satisfied them in certain ways before they will present him to the vice chancellor to receive his degree. Twelve terms' residence means three years in Oxford. The colleges add one or two further requirements to the "keeping of terms," as it is called, before presenting a man for his degree, *e. g.*, dining a certain number of times per term in college, and attending a certain number of morning services in the college chapel—a cause of bitter complaint to the undergraduate. For three years a man, as a rule, has to attend three or four eight o'clock services per week. Getting behind-



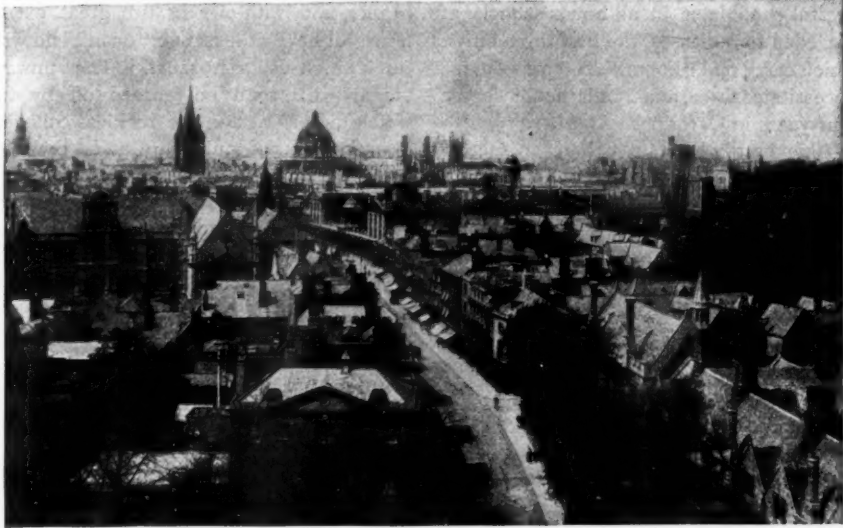
"THE HIGH."

"*Statuta Universitatis Oxoniensis*," and tells them, in Latin, to be aware that that day they are taken into the bosom of the university, and are bound by all the statutes in that book which may concern them. Then having entered his name on the university

hand with chapels or "rollers" brings a note from the dean, and if that fail the unpunctual one is "hauled," which involves a personal interview with the authorities and probably a "gating," that is, being confined to the college grounds after dinner for a

certain number of nights. Thomas Barham, the genial author of the "Ingoldsby Legends," when up at Brasenose was a very festive character, and found morning chapels almost impossible. Being "hailed," he explained to the dons that eight o'clock

to pass, "moderations" (or "mods"), and "greats," properly called "the first and second public examinations." Men who do not seek honors are said to go in for "pass schools," as opposed to "honor schools." For "pass mods" the candidates



OXFORD FROM MAGDALEN TOWER.

was too late for him. Four, or even five o'clock in the morning he could manage, but he really could not sit up *regularly* till eight!

And now for the examinations, the skeletons at the feast of university life. The first, "responsions"—or more familiarly, "smalls"—may be passed either before or after matriculation. It is an easy matter, though to the mathematical specialist its limited classical requirements are sometimes a stumbling block, and *vice versa*; but such unfortunates derive comfort from the lists of subsequently famous scholars who were "ploughed in smalls," rumor falsely or truly placing even Mr. Gladstone among the number. Smalls are the same for everyone; afterwards it becomes necessary to divide men into two very distinct classes, those who do, and those who do not "seek honors."

Both these classes have two more ordeals

require: (a) Latin and Greek; (b) logic or algebra and geometry. "Pass greats" are divided into four groups: A, classical; B, modern; C, mathematical and scientific; D, theological. Each of these is further subdivided into subjects. The candidate must take up three subjects, no two of which may be in the same group, with the exception of group A, in which he may take up two, if Roman and Grecian history be one of them.

"Honor mods" are divided into classical and mathematical schools. The classical is a very searching examination in pure classics and deductive logic; the mathematical school is an equally severe test in pure mathematics, mechanics, solids, and fluids.

In "greats" we find seven honor schools, in any one of which a man may "go out," *i. e.*, take as his the final examination qualifying him for his degree: (1) "Literal Humaniores"

(classical), the examination *par excellence* of Oxford; (2) mathematics; (3) natural science; (4) jurisprudence; (5) modern history; (6) theology; (7) Oriental studies. These examinations are on far too wide a basis, and of much too wide a scope to admit of giving even an outline of what they involve. Successful candidates in all honor schools are placed in four classes, the first three only of which carry real "honor." A "pass degree" necessitates three, and a full "honor degree" four years in Oxford.

It is hardly necessary here to speak of the other degrees conferred at Oxford, such as Doctor of Divinity, degrees in medicine, common law, and music, and the honorary D.C.L. conferred *honoris causa* upon distinguished men of all countries. The further degree of M. A. (*Artium Magister*) may be taken, upon the payment of certain fees, by any B. A. who has had his name on the college books for twenty-seven terms from matriculation.

To prepare himself for his examinations the undergraduate has every facility. On coming up a man is assigned with a certain number of others to a particular tutor in his own college, who is, so to speak, the general director of his work. The colleges have instituted a system of having "combined lectures." Shortly it is this: every college supplies some good men who lecture, each on some subject, so many times a week at a fixed hour. The lecturer uses his own college lecture rooms, but members of all colleges are welcome to listen to him. At the beginning of each term a man's tutor advises him as to what lectures he should attend and sends his name into the various lecturers. For work which requires more personal instruction a similar system is in vogue, and one man will take four or five at a time in his own rooms; every one has a considerable amount of individual attention from some two or three of his own college, especially his own tutor.

On going through the gate of a typical college, after passing through the never unguarded porter's lodge, you enter a spacious quadrangle, through which you may pass into a second, and so on, the whole ground

plan, however, never being anything like regular. There is no space to dwell on the architectural beauties and historic interest of these buildings, the dining halls with their pictures and the chapels and libraries with their art treasures being enough to fill a book. Many colleges have gardens of great beauty, and, with one or two great exceptions, all have at least one "quad" laid with turf which is sacrosanct. The unwary visitor will soon be warned off by the watchful porter, and the reckless collegian may find himself mulcted of half a crown or five shillings if his sacrilegious footsteps wander from the path. A tale is told of a wealthy American visitor's purchasing from a college gardener at a handsome fee the secret of his lovely turf. "Lay it with mountain sods, sir," was the recipe, "and roll it regular for a couple of hundred years."

The buildings as a rule are three-storied, and, save where chapel, hall, or library, and the like break the regularity, are divided into "staircases" opening onto the "quad." On these staircases each man has his rooms. Over the outer door, or "oak," is a plate which tells the owner's name; through the inner door is reached the sitting room, into which the bedroom opens as well as a third small room or pantry, termed the "scout-hole," where plate, glass, china, brooms, coal, etc., are kept. The oak when closed intimates that the inmate is not receiving guests, and can only be opened by a key—or, as sometimes happens, a sledge-hammer. A never closed oak outside generally means never opened books within.

The ways and means and expenses of living in college are a complicated matter, but it may be possible to sketch an outline which will give a fairly accurate idea of the system. Living in college is very like living in a club, but food and drink are supplied at charges very little over cost price.

Many colleges have what is termed a "junior common room"; to form this the undergraduates combine, pay an annual subscription of about £4.10, rent the necessary rooms from the college, and appoint a president from among their own number,

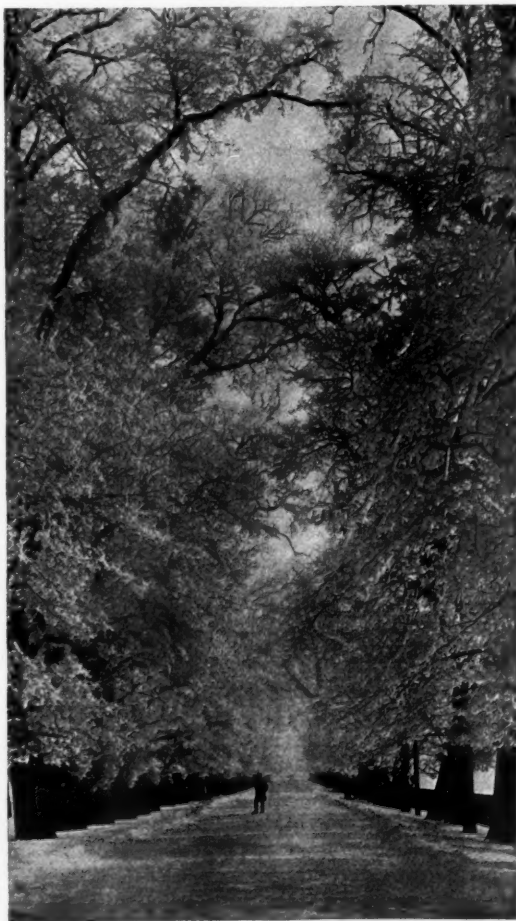
generally a man in his fourth year, a permanent steward being paid to act as general manager. They thus form a club over which they hold complete control, "dons" merely being admitted as members on exactly the same terms as the "men." Any matter affecting the undergraduates as a body is discussed by a general meeting of the J. C. R. specially summoned. From the J. C. R. a man gets his breakfast, wines, cigars, tobacco, spirits, groceries, writing paper, in fact all ordinary necessities of living, and he gets them, as above mentioned, at very little over their cost price. The J. C. R. also runs a reading room, where all the chief papers and magazines are taken.

The J. C. R. bill for the term may be about £15 or £20 for a man who lives comfortably but not extravagantly. Other college expenses go under the name of "battels." Every week each man receives a "battel sheet," which is his bill for the week's luncheons, dinners, coal, laundry, "gate bill," etc. In the vacation he receives his battel bill for the term, which is a summary of the weekly sheets, with the addition of tuition fees (seven guineas as a rule),

room rent, service, university and college dues, and various other light expenses such as local and poor rates. These will total perhaps £40 or a little more, taking as before the man who is no way extravagant but who lives comfortably.

Where the J. C. R. system does not prevail with such elaboration, the college supplies many of the living necessities, and for the rest men go to tradesmen.

And now before taking a brief look at what may be called the unofficial side of "varsity" life, we may consider shortly one phase in which the official and unofficial touch; for it is the irregularities of the latter which bring the undergraduate into contact with the discipline of the former, the proctors being the connecting link. It is generally the despair of the Oxonian to make the uninitiated fully understand the proctorial system. By virtue of their office the proctors have powers which are as great as they are unique, and which they exercise with the tact and discretion which might be looked for in gentlemen of their social standing and official responsibility. They can, for example, enter and search any



BROAD WALK IN WINTER, CHRIST COLLEGE.

house in which they suspect an undergraduate may be offending against, or sheltering from the laws of the university, and they can expel from the city vicious characters of either sex. But we are concerned with more everyday occurrences. And

tices they aim at. Leave is readily given to drive, caps and gowns are not expected to be worn till after dinner, and it must be remembered that a proctor only takes cognizance of offenses when he personally catches the offender *in flagrante delicto*, and



MAGDALEN COLLEGE FROM CHERWELL.

when one considers the things the Oxonian must *not* do, but does, and *vice versa*, it may seem strange that fines and penalties are not his daily lot. He may not drive without permission from the senior proctor; he may not play billiards before one p. m. or after nine p. m.; he may not enter houses licensed to sell alcoholic drinks; when out of doors he must always be arrayed in cap and gown, and to smoke while wearing "academical costume" is against the laws.

And yet livery stables in Oxford are many and flourishing; billiard rooms are busy from breakfast to closing hour; but for the undergraduates the best hotels would cease to exist; unless going to a lecture men *never* wear cap and gown by day, and many not even by night; while the streets of Oxford in term time are always redolent of Turkish tobacco. The reason for this seems to be that these laws are meant to moderate rather than absolutely to prohibit the prac-

tices, as a rule, only one proctor is out at a time, and that not for many hours during the day, the chances are much in favor of the three thousand undergraduates.

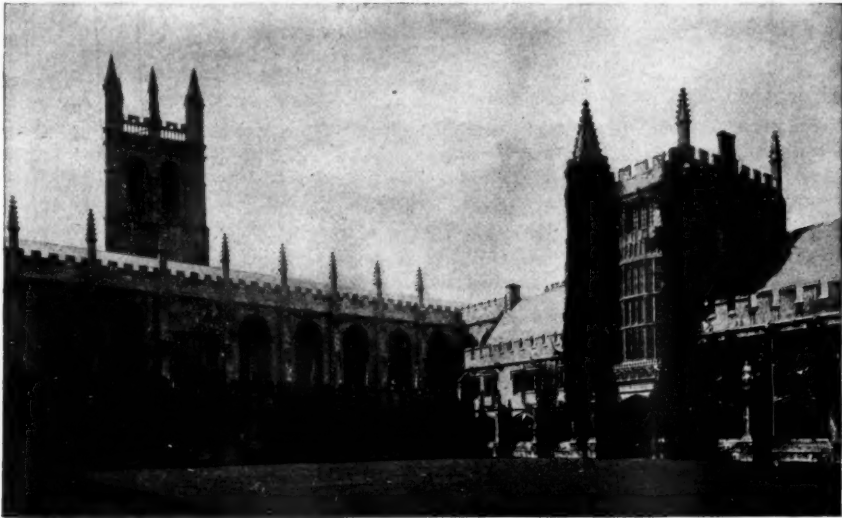
Considered as a social animal the Oxonian affords an interesting field to the observer. But here minute investigation would be out of place, and vaguely to suggest a few of the best defined lines along which his daily life travels will be sufficient. Beyond everything his interest centers in things athletic. Every form of athletics, from hunting and polo to lawn tennis and fives, has its numerous and enthusiastic devotees in Oxford. But the football and the cricket fields, the river and the running grounds are the four gods to whom young Oxford bends the knee. Throughout the two winter terms the colleges are playing one another at football; the summer term is one long cricket match, and all the year round the river claims her slaves. Every college besides being an

educational establishment is an athletic club, to which all its members belong, subscribing some eight or ten guineas a year per head to meet expenses. The immediate ambition of the freshman is to play for his college teams, or row in his college boat; beyond that, as the very height of all human success, he longs for his "blue," *i. e.*, to be picked as a representative of his varsity in one of these four branches of athletics. The best known and most discussed men in Oxford are not the learned scholars of the class lists, but the mighty "blues" who are to be read of in *The Field*, *The Sportsman*, and every other English paper.

The same enthusiastic spirit and systematic organization that he displays in the open, the undergraduate brings into his indoor life. He is the most "clubbable" man in the world. It has been said that if three Oxford men meet more than twice, they proceed at once to form a club, appoint an

clubs; and nearly every club has its annual dinner. He would be a truly singular man who could find no club to suit him in Oxford. One club there is which calls for separate notice,—the Union. Open to all members of the university, both senior and junior, this big club has fine buildings in a central position, with an excellent library and good reading, smoking, billiard and dining rooms. But its most prominent feature is its debating hall. Here once a week young Oxford settles the affairs of the nation, and here many a great British statesman has put his foot on the first rung of the ladder which leads to the premiership. As might be expected, the Oxonian is in the main staunchly Conservative, but what the Radical party lacks in numbers it makes up for in warmth.

It would never do to leave our Oxford friends without just mentioning one or two of their minor idiosyncrasies. "There's



CLOISTERS, MAGDALEN COLLEGE.

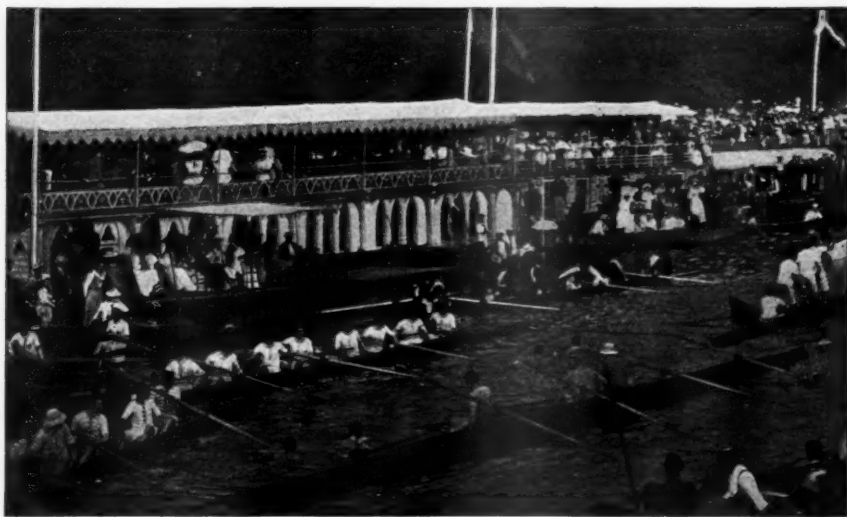
honorary president, secretary and treasurer, and arrange an annual dinner. Oxford teems with clubs, social, political and religious; literary, musical and dramatic; card clubs, dining clubs and gambling clubs; Irish, Scotch, Welsh and school

nothing in the world like etiquette," says Byron, and nowhere is there a more rigid system than in Oxford. It is an unwritten law of a scope impossible to detail, but, like most unwritten laws, well known and instinctively obeyed by all whom it concerns.

When a freshman first goes up he finds as a rule a goodly number of old school-fellows to welcome him; but they are his seniors and for awhile he cannot join fully in their daily life. So for a time he is much thrown upon the company of his fellow-freshmen of the same college. And this has its advantages, for these freshmen will one day be the senior and leading men of the college, so it is well for them to know something of one another. Before long, however, he will make the acquaintance of a great portion of the college. The fourth year man troubles not himself about

cards, but simply his name, initials and college.

It is not long before the stranger has a large circle of acquaintances, and has been tried at football or cricket, according to the time of year, or perhaps he has elected to try the river; and the better he proves himself in these the better the position he will take in his college. But for a whole year he must never for a moment forget that he is a freshman. "Breakfasted" and "lunched" as he is on all hands in these days, he must ask no senior to sit at his table; his time will come; at present he is



PROCESSION OF BOATS.

"freshers." But the second year man will join and invite the newcomers *en bloc* to breakfast or lunch, and the third year man will do the same. If this is not the custom of the college, the same men will call on the freshman, taking care to leave their cards on his table when he is out or sending the college messenger to leave them. The freshman, when he returns the call, may not leave his card if he finds his man out, but must call again and again till he finds him in,—for how else could they become acquainted?—and then the shorter he makes his visit the better he is appreciated. An Oxford man, by the way, never has *Mr.* on his

only on probation. A becoming respect for his seniors, outwardly at all events, is strongly inculcated in the English youth from the beginning of his school days to the end of his college career. The ceremony of introduction has been mentioned, and it may serve as an example of the minute details required by varsity etiquette. Freshmen are not introduced at all. Men of the same college are never introduced to one another, even if they are not acquainted; members of a college always know each other in a third man's rooms, though they may be strangers on the other side of the door. Except at the beginning and end of

term, or on festive occasions such as club dinners, or "wines," Oxford men never shake hands; when introduced the same rule obtains,—if they are in the streets they raise their hats and in a room they bow. This custom at all events avoids that awkward interrogative motion of the hand which is seen sometimes where etiquette lays down no rule.

The elaborate politeness of the proctor and his victim is amusingly typical of the place. Suppose that the proctor on his evening round meets a man who is not wearing cap and gown, the following little scene will be enacted:

The Proctor (politely raising his cap).
"Good evening. Am I speaking to a member of this university?"

The Victim (lifting his hat with equal politeness). "Yes, sir."

The P. (producing a notebook and pencil).
"Kindly give me your name and college."

The V. "So and so, of such a college."

The P. (making entry in notebook).
"Thank you. Please to call on me at ——— college to-morrow morning at nine o'clock.
Good evening" (*again raising his cap*).

The V. "Good evening" (*returning the salute*).

And next morning the victim is fined five shillings, with the same urbane politeness on both sides. And so with everything in Oxford, etiquette prescribes a way in which all things must be done, and that way and no other will do.

With all its little foibles, one good point is prominent in undergraduate society. In it a man is valued for what he is himself, and ranked accordingly. Who he is or what he has matters little; the man himself and his own qualities settle his status.

And now it is time to write *finis* to this very inadequate sketch of a few of the leading features of a modern Oxford career. It is a career which has an ineffaceable influence on every man who goes through it; on all her alumni Oxford places a stamp by which they may be known. And he is a miserable wight who can look back upon such a career without tender and loving recollections of the too short years spent in the bosom of Alma Mater,

"The spot
Which one remembers, but where one's forgot."

PASTEUR AND HIS LIFE WORK.

BY FELIX L. OSWALD, M. D.

IT has been said that the world forgets its benefactors and remembers its tyrants, but that complaint may have originated in an age when the dramas of history dealt only with kings, and when benefactions, so called, were generally limited to a temporary remission of taxes.

Permanent contributions to the fund of human happiness are not apt to be forgotten. Gutenberg, Columbus, and Franklin still live in the memory of millions who would refuse to memorize the forty titles of Charles the Fifth, and Louis Pasteur, the vanquisher of disease germs, has inscribed his name in the herald-roll of fame as indelibly as any other conqueror.

Louis Jerome Pasteur was born in 1822 in the little country town of Dole, on the G-Dec.

southwestern slope of the Jura Range. His father was a *Vieux de l'Empire* who had followed the first Napoleon in his last desperate campaigns, and his mother a native of Vacluse, where Petrarch passed his exile, and where the doomed Albigenses made their last stand against the power of their persecutors. She was a woman of unusual intelligence, and both from his mother's and his father's side Pasteur may have inherited his intense longing for a field of combat where heroism and perseverance had a chance of success against the brutalities of this world.

At the college of Arbois (also in the Jura) where his father eventually settled, young Louis passed his leisure in sketching models of mechanical contrivances, and acquired quite a reputation as a draughtsman before

his chief talent had begun to disclose itself. The construction of a collision-proof railway engine was one of his early daydreams, and in his scrapbook there are sketches of various ingenious varieties of lifeboats, as if plans for the obviation of traveling perils had occupied his mind. But the cholera epidemic of 1841 gave a new turn to his thoughts. He realized the fact that there are worse foes of the human race than storms and breakers, and a few months after entering the college of Besançon he engaged in the study of organic chemistry with an energy which bore its fruits in the subsequent recommendation of one of his teachers. "He is a cyclopedia of miscellaneous information on a subject which forms only a subordinate branch of our curriculum," wrote Professor Duvancel in 1847, "and I do believe that he has not only devoured but digested all the chemical and biological works in our library."

In 1844 he went to Paris and after a few months of preliminary studies passed an examination for admission to the École Normale. His rating of fourteenth in a large class of candidates would have answered all practical purposes, but it disappointed his ambition; so much so, indeed, that he withdrew his application to spend another year in specialty studies. The next time he tried, he passed fourth in a class of ninety-eight applicants, nearly all older than himself. In three out of twelve branches he stood first, and his teachers never after lost sight of the ambitious student.

He had not yet left Paris when he obtained a patent on a simplification of an important chemical process, and within a month after his graduation he was offered a professorship of physics, at the college of Dijon. He took a look at the place, but did not like it at all, and soon after accepted a call to the University of Strasburg in the garden region of the French Rhineland. Here he staid till 1854 and then went to Lille to establish a faculty of science on a plan of his own. The success of that enterprise and a number of scientific monographs finally attracted the attention of the minister of education, and in 1857 he received a call to Paris to

reorganize the scientific department of the École Normale—a high honor for a man who had just celebrated his thirty-fifth birthday and whose father ten years ago would have been glad to have him settle down as a grammar school teacher in the little town of Arbois.

His present position brought him *en rapport* with some of the foremost savants of the French capital and he was appointed assessor of several examining boards and offered the editorship of a new scientific magazine with a fair staff of contributors. Still Pasteur longed for a chance to extend his sphere of activity. That chance came in 1865, when the government appointed a committee to investigate the causes of the silkworm plague that threatened to ruin the silk industries of southern Europe. Pasteur, at the urgent recommendation of one of his former teachers, was invited to attend the sessions of a select number of specialists, and deputed several of his other incumbencies in order to devote his whole time to the study of the present problem.

A biographer of Napoleon Bonaparte describes a scene in the old chapel of the Tuileries where the young general, after the *coup d'état*, received his colleagues, and at once was offered the presidency of the council. With a similar facility Professor Pasteur assumed the direction of proceedings at the first meeting of the silkworm commissioners. "Let us come to a clear understanding of our purpose before we waste any more time on phrases," he said in his brusque manner; "*Est-ce que vous espérez des révélations* (Do you propose to wait for revelations)? As for me, I see no chance of benefits in continuing deliberations of a subject which not one of us has taken the trouble to study." His colleagues demurred; but Dr. Dumas, as secretary of a subcommittee, finally drew up a memorandum advising a postponement of proceedings till Professor Pasteur had time to investigate the phenomena of the plague in the south of France.

Pasteur went to Avignon. At that time he had only a vague impression that the causes of the disease could hardly have anything to do with the quality of the food (fresh

mulberry leaves) which had been selected with great care, but he resolved to see for himself, and as one item of his aids to clearness of vision, took along a large assortment of microscopes. He also had an apparatus to photograph magnified views of microscopic objects, and before long reported that the silkworm plague was due to a parasite. The eradication of the noxious microbes, he added, would lead to the abatement of the epidemic.

The Academy of Sciences may have taken this communication for a final report, and some of its members openly expressed their disappointment. "We are about as wise as before," said Professor Garnier; "he might just as well have informed the public that the simplest way to promote virtue would be the suppression of crime." "They ought to have left that matter to the farmers," said another critic; "a Paris pedagogue is out of his element in that field of inquiry."

Professor Pasteur's inquiries, however, had only just begun. Without paying the least attention to his censors he collected samples of silkworms from all over southern France and the adjoining parts of the Mediterranean coastlands and tabulated his microscopic observations in the most systematic manner. He also collected a variety of silkmoths (the silkworm, so-called, is the caterpillar of a small night butterfly) together with their eggs and the *cocoons* of the chrysalis. He soon could recognize the symptoms of the disease in all its phases, and one day called upon a magistrate of St. Hippolyte with the request to accompany him to a large silkworm nursery. There he selected samples of moths and caterpillars, separated them with a supply of their favorite food and numbered each lot in the presence of his companion. He then handed him a number of marked slips of paper with predictions as to the destiny of the different lots: "Will form a chrysalis but an imperfect cocoon"; "Cannot survive the next month"; "Will form a perfect cocoon, and ought to be selected as the nucleus of a new nursery."

The latter words disclosed the plan of his campaign against the destructive microbes.

Instead of trying to cure the diseased silkworms, he proposed to destroy them utterly and stock the mulberry plantations with new moths, warranted to be free from the germs of infection. The event verified his predictions in every case and his plan was eagerly endorsed by the silk planters, who with all their prejudices could be trusted to appreciate logic in a business question of vital importance.

The government committee, of course, could no longer refuse its sanction. The "Pasteur process" was tried on a large scale, and within three years after its national adoption resulted in stamping out the silkworm plague in France and northern Spain.

The Italian government, too, entered into negotiations with the successful specialist, but he declined a lucrative appointment in order to bestow his attention upon a new problem: the cause and possible cure of *anthrax*, a deadly cattle plague, which in more than one case has proved fatal both to herders and herds, and can be communicated by minute particles of purulent matter.

"The cause of the disorder," says a reviewer of his scientific career, "had baffled all previous investigations, but Pasteur took up the question with his accustomed vigor and soon established the fact that the small filiform corpuscles found in the blood of animals killed by anthrax were terrible parasites, capable, in spite of their infinitely small dimensions, of killing sheep, cattle or men. Finally he took the closing step in the matter by examining the question why anthrax is perpetuated in certain countries. The germs of the disease, buried with its victims, become mixed with the earth, and live for years in the state of spores, till the activity of earthworms brings them back to the surface, where they are scattered over the fields and become a constant source of contagion for grazing sheep and cattle."

Pasteur advised to bury the victims of the plague either in quicklime pits or in special enclosures where cattle cannot penetrate, and if possible in stony or calcareous ground where earthworms are scarce. He also devised means for abating the ravages of a

parasite that had ruined hundreds of fine vineyards and seemed to have a special predilection for the most valuable grapevines, while it spared the wild swamp grape of the river jungles.

Services of that kind could no longer be ignored. The Academy of Sciences conciliated his resentment; the Academie Française admitted him by acclamation, and the French government voted him an annuity of twelve thousand francs. Not less than twenty-two universities honored him with titles and offers of membership, and in Paris his claim to supremacy had already been recognized by savants of all classes when he commenced that course of investigations that have most contributed to make his name an international household word, though their practical results were far from satisfying the expectations of the great pathologist himself.

In 1735 Dr. Boerhaave included hydrophobia in his list of incurable diseases, and for nearly a century the progress of science had given no promise of changing that verdict. The biologist Bichat, indeed, had recorded his opinion that dogs and other animals could be rendered rabies-proof by methods similar to that adopted by Hindoo beast-tamers for the purpose of protecting themselves against the bite of venomous serpents, but the eradication of the virus from the blood of unprepared patients defied, and perhaps will continue to defy, the resources of medical science.

Pasteur had collected numerous data for the investigation of a problem which had for years attracted him by its very difficulty, when in the summer of 1883 his attention was called to a circumstance that seemed to indicate the possibility of a practical solution.

A mad dog at Montpellier in the department of Hérault had bitten a large number of smaller dogs, cats, and other domestic animals, which, in turn, had attacked the quadrupeds of their neighborhood, and it had been noticed that those bitten by cats developed hydrophobia in its most virulent form, while those injured by the bite of horses and other herbivorous beasts got off with a few days' fever and in most cases recovered before the end of a week.

Pasteur procured a detailed report of the case, and soon after began that series of experiments which in the course of the next twelve years involved the death of thousands of dogs, cats, rabbits, and guinea-pigs, besides such occasional victims as ferrets and monkeys.

As a starting point of his inquiries, he took it for granted that hydrophobia, like anthrax, was due to the agency of some microscopic organism, and his primary purpose was to ascertain the habits of the responsible microbe under various forms of treatment. His belief in the possibility of arresting its course of development was founded on rather slender data; but the experimenter clung to the hope that the key of that ulterior problem would somehow reveal itself among other incidental results of his investigations.

His preliminary conjectures were abundantly verified. He found that the virus of the terrible disease could be intensified or diluted—become swiftly fatal in the blood of cats and ferrets, and comparatively harmless in the veins of guinea-pigs. Re-inoculation added to the evidences of that tendency. After passing through the organism of ten different guinea-pigs or rabbits the venom of canine rabies became so modified that its effects upon dogs or men resembled the symptoms of a mild fever. And, like cowpox lymph, that weakened virus, proved to possess the property of protecting the system against the contagion of its more dangerous modifications. Thus, by inoculating a dog with rabbit hydrophobia of the mildest grade his organism could be fortified against the effects of a more virulent *dosis*, and so on, till the bite of a mad dog could be warranted to produce no serious effects. The latter circumstance was tested so repeatedly that one phase of the problem can now be said to have been definitely solved. A dog fancier can subject his pets to a course of inoculations that will protect them against rabies a great deal more infallibly than vaccination can be hoped to protect a human being against the risk of smallpox contagion. Dog trainers and the managers of dog pounds have in many cases volunteered to try the specific upon their own persons.

Its efficacy for the *cure* (as distinct from the prevention) of hydrophobia is unfortunately much more doubtful. Quite a number of mad-dog-bitten patients have unquestionably died in spite of their prompt removal to a Pasteur hospital. Whether the recorded cases of recovery after treatment are more numerous than those without any treatment whatever, is still a mooted question. For it must be remembered that the bites of mad dogs do not by any means always prove fatal; the virus may have failed to penetrate a thick stratum of woollen garments, or the dog's power for mischief may have been exhausted by previous attacks. It is equally worth remembering that the symptoms of hydrophobia often resemble those of other disorders. At all events the percentage of recoveries under the let-alone plan differs only slightly from that claimed by impartial managers of hydrophobia hospitals. A physician of Czenstochow in Russian Poland estimates the average of fatal cases as thirty per cent, while the record of the Pasteur institutes varies between seven and eight in ten definite recoveries.

In summing up the result of Pasteur's hydrophobia studies it may therefore be said that he has discovered a preventive, but not a cure of the dreadful disorder. His specific protects against subsequent inoculations, whether by the lancet of the operator or the fang of a rabid dog, but that circumstance by no means guarantees its efficacy in counteracting the effect of *prior* bites. Take the analogous case of vaccination: it will forestall the risk of subsequent infections of a worse disease, but a person who had already contracted the contagion of that disease could not be restored to health by all the vaccine in a metropolitan hospital. Still, even that partial success should have silenced the detractors who impeached the great pathologist on an often repeated charge founded on the inhumanity of his experiments. "If I had been actuated by wanton curiosity," he replied, "there could be no

possible excuse for the death of a single rabbit, but in pursuit of a higher aim I should not hesitate to sacrifice all the brute animals I can get hold of, and confess that I have more than once longed for a chance to accomplish the extermination of the entire race of worthless curs."

During the last five years of his life he ignored hostile criticism altogether, and his friends could refute the charge of truculence by recalling his memorable conduct in the crisis of the Franco-Prussian War. "You have seen fit to celebrate the butchery of your neighbors as a festival," he wrote to the dean of the University of Bonn, when the Germans bombarded Paris, "and I must ask you to erase my name from your list of honorary doctors. I do not make this request in a moment of irritation, but deliberately, as a mark of the indignation felt by a French savant for the barbarism and the hypocrisy which, to satisfy a criminal pride, persists in the massacre of two great nations."

Though the hopes that prompted the investigation of the hydrophobia problem were but partially realized, the merit of Pasteur's earlier labors is beyond the reach of cavil. The value to France of his silkworm specific alone has been estimated to exceed thirty million francs a year. The ravages of anthrax and of the vineyard parasite have been abated wherever his directions were strictly followed. His researches have thrown a new and invaluable light on several recondite branches of pathology. They have incidentally, also, exploded the chimera of "spontaneous generation." His experiments proved conclusively that the disease germs developed in the decaying organisms come from without, and not from within. A dying emperor is said to have consoled himself with the reflection that he found Rome a city of brick and left it a city of marble. Louis Pasteur's last days must have been cheered by the far more inspiring thought that his labors had made the world healthier, wealthier, and wiser.

THE SENATOR'S DAUGHTERS.*

BY A. C. WHEELER.

CHAPTER XVII.

CICELY was not given to the luxury of her emotions. Like all healthy organizations, her sadness, like her joy, took little heed of itself. She had a duty to perform which would have thrown some girls into a retrospective and prospective fit of the dumps, she had to pack her trunks and move out,—where, she hadn't the faintest suspicion. It had a flavor of genteel vagabondage when she stopped to think about it at all. But she offset that with a dutiful girl's belief in her father. So she kept up for a day a chirrupy air, as she gathered some of her private property together, and for the first time in her life experienced the odd sensation of wrenching the little identifications of her home from their long relationship and poking them down in her trunks.

Mrs. Blood came and looked on and said she would help her if it were not for an engagement she had with the Ferrises in the village to spend the day. It would be a good idea for Cicely to put off her packing and come along.

When her sisters were gone there came a real estate agent, a fussy, short-breathed little fellow, who had the senator's order to show the place to a gentleman with a view to purchasing, and Cicely had to go with them and unlock some of the doors and hear the disparaging remarks of the gentleman, who was a western man suddenly come into a fortune, and who waived the agent's apologies aside by saying he didn't care for that for he would tear the place down and rebuild it up to date. What he wanted was site. "There!" remarked the agent as they stood at the big window in the upper hall, "where will you find a view like that outside of Switzerland? Look at that grove of old oaks; ancestral, sir, every one of them—ancestral."

* Begun in the August number.

"I think," said the stranger, "the view would be much better if they were cut out," and the agent with easy acquiescence added, "Undoubtedly, sir, nothing easier."

All this brought to the sense of the girl with the rudeness of a blow the impending dissolution of the home, and when she returned to her room and resumed her task of gathering up her effects there was a little dash of recklessness in her manner. She took down an old outing dress, endeared to her by a hundred sunny little adventures of her own, and throwing it across the top of the trunk said, "There's no need of taking that, I shall never want it again." A moment later she threw up the sash and leaning out gave herself up to a revery which was only saved from tears by a stimulating sense of indignation.

It was in this mood that Louise caught her. Cicely stared at her a moment with a quick dismay, as if her own thoughts had raised the phantom. Then when they had come together it was prosaically explained. Louise too had come to gather up her personal effects, and Cicely holding her off with an eager expectancy said, "First of all tell me one thing—is it true?"

"Yes," replied Louise, calmly, "Mr. St. Clair is my husband. We had work to do and we dispensed with the ceremonials. If I had known that you were in the city I should have sent you word. I have a great deal to tell you and we can have several days here all to ourselves. Don't look at me that way. When you understand it better you will be reconciled."

"I don't know," said Cicely, "does one ever get reconciled to desolation? Everything that I love appears to be taking wings."

"Not so, dear, they are only passing through their progressive stages. You give away too much to sentimentalism. Nothing is so foolish as to suppose our condi-

tions and our attachments are immutable."

"It sounds very strange to hear you say so. I had a notion that our loves were immortal."

"Certainly. I wasn't speaking of love, but of our attachments to places and our feminine inertia which leads us to shape ourselves to our environment. It seems to me that a woman's highest duty is to give up something and go on. Why do you turn away?"

"Because," said Cicely, "you are talking St. Clair, and I don't understand it. It sounds to me like a specious disloyalty to our sainted mother."

Louise protested earnestly. "No," she replied with a movement of endearment, "no, no, my dear, believe me. I think she equipped us with the principles and convictions to do our own work, not to do hers. We have got to face our special tasks with those principles, and carry on her work in our separate lives. That is the true way to look at it. When she left us, the family altar of this establishment was abandoned. But the priestesses were left to establish new ones. Every stone, Cicely, is as dear to me as it is to you, but we cannot preserve them or carry them with us, all we can do is to go on and take the ark of the covenant with us. The Israelites would never have reached the promised land if they had made home attachments at every resting place."

Cicely only looked at her sister with a genuine surprise, as she stepped back with the involuntary effort to get this conclusion into a comprehensible perspective. "Oh, dear," she said, "how much you are changed! You have learned to argue, and I haven't. I am a stupid little rustic, and it seems to me that the Israelites for forty years were bending all their efforts under divine guidance to find a permanent resting place and build a home and cover the ark of the covenant with a shrine and a temple to which all the children should come forever. I never heard that one of the priestesses told them that they should renew their wanderings and let their altars decay. Mother was our Moses, Louise, and you are talking like a Philistine."

Louise could not disguise her astonishment at this naive burst of eloquence. But she said, "Let me remind you, my dear, that Jesus was the Philistine who said to the children, 'neither in this mountain, nor yet at Jerusalem.' The temple is in our hearts, let us keep it sacred."

"By destroying all its mementos! I think you place more value on the dispersion than you do on the restoration, and we shall never agree."

"Nonsense!" said Louise, "we shall agree the moment we look at disagreeable facts with the same brave eyes. What do you suppose our father intends to do? Don't shut your eyes because you are a woman."

"He is going to sell Upsandowns," replied Cicely pensively.

"That isn't all!"

"What do you mean?"

"He is going to marry again."

"Impossible!"

"Why impossible?"

"Because he never could commit the sacrilege!"

Cicely softly untwined herself from her sister's arms and impulsively sprang up.

"Marriage!" she said, with a bitter tone.

"Is there nothing else in this world but marriage? Do we have to drop all obligations, all vows, all ties, all duties in the presence of this inexorable monster?"

"Listen to me a moment," said Louise calmly, and Cicely sat down on her belittered trunk and putting her head in her hands began to cry, a picture of helplessness amid her own ruins.

"I suspect," continued Louise, "that father has involved himself in speculation and is making a desperate effort to bring politics to his rescue. He does not realize that he is a little behind the methods of the present day. He does not see, any more than you do, that nothing stands still."

Cicely dropped her hands from her face and looking at her sister through wet eyes broke out impulsively, "And you think that marriage is one of his expedients, that he will install another woman in our mother's place, and I will go and live with them and

consent to bury my past in tears and live the horrible mockery of a new life? You don't know me—I'll join the Salvation Army."

"It isn't necessary," Louise said, "you shall come and live with me."

"That is to say, I must choose between a pensioner and a pauper."

"Don't you think that is a very ungracious way of putting it?"

"Perhaps; it isn't possible to be honest without being ungracious. I wish I were a man."

"Every woman wishes that at some time of her career—and generally when she is most disloyal to her mission."

"His is the favored sex," cried Cicely. "He can always enlist, or become a tramp, without sacrificing his independence."

Louise smiled, with the benignant indulgence of an elder sister who has acquired matronly privileges.

"It is better to remain a woman and manage men, my dear," she said. "Do you refuse to come and live with me? I shall need you."

"I don't know what to do," exclaimed Cicely, with a very pretty despair. "I'm desperately attached to our old home. I can't think without a reproach of abandoning it. My mother's trust was given here and centers here. Instead of my going aimlessly out into the world to help you in a scheme that I do not understand and in which I have no heart, you ought to help me; help me to fight for the home our mother made, to keep it as a refuge and a sanctuary for all the prodigals of the family, to build up anew its sacred influences, relight the altar lamps, and bring back to the covenant of love all who have strayed away and found only despair."

Louise was amazed at this speech. Something told her it was the unsophisticated utterance of absolute womanliness—the protest and the appeal of that feminine loyalty to a sentiment and an affection which defies the mutations of time, the spiritual fidelity to an emotion that will keep a grave green when men have forgotten the occupant.

But Louise had a practical side and there

were the inevitable facts to face. "We cannot save the old home," she said, "so let us not waste useless regrets. We cannot adjust our father to what he will call our narrow views. Let us then do the best we can in view of the facts. That is at least common sense. Father will make you an allowance. You can then come and live with me and we will try to keep alive our old confidence and our mother's trust without making impossible conditions."

Cicely was silent for some time and appeared to be thinking very hard. Then she kissed her sister and said, "Wait, Louise, it is too soon. Mr. St. Clair will not care to have me in his household. We should not get along together. Perhaps it is my fault. But there it is. In six months, if you need me, I will come."

Here the sisterly confidences lapsed for a while. Cicely was conscious of a slight withdrawing of Louise into herself, as she made a rather formal attempt to change the topic of conversation. But, later, the influence of the old place with its associations overcame even this new bar, and they went about from room to room with a tacit understanding that they would discuss only that in which their sentiments were equally involved.

In the evening the four sisters assembled as of old in the big family room and Cicely told them of Banny's misfortune, as she was pleased to call it. But they all failed to look at it from her point of view. Mrs. Blood summarized the case by asking, "What could you expect?" and Mrs. Bland was glad for the family's sake it was no worse: "Marriage was not as bad as the state's prison."

Louise deprecated that view of it and Cicely resented it, but the subject was a perilous one and it was dropped, or rather it was suddenly shunted by Mrs. Blood's inquiry made with that kind of serious deliberation which betrays previous preparation, "Now that we are all together, what is to become of the things in this house?"

After a dead silence of a moment, as if the question had been a challenge, Cicely ventured the remark that her father would

probably know best what to do with his property.

"He will probably do what is customary in such cases," said Mrs. Blood. "The effects are all valuable to his family, and to no one else. He will distribute them. We ought to have an understanding before any more of them go out of the house."

"So far as I am concerned," said Cicely, "I shall take no part in the consultation and offer no advice. The effects are part of the homestead. If that is broken up they have no interest for me. So if you wish to do any partitioning I will retire," and the spirited girl got up with the impulse to leave the room. Louise called her back. "Don't run away and leave me in a helpless minority, for I agree with you," she said.

"No, stay," said Mrs. Blood, "and don't be childish. We have to decide if there shall be an auction, or a division. Papa cannot entirely disregard our wishes—the trouble has always been that we have always antagonized each other and then exasperated him. There is the silver, the old china, the library, the portraits, and the old furniture. I know pa, and he will put up a flag rather than be bothered with them."

"As for the carpets," remarked Mrs. Bland, "with the exception of the new one in the parlor they are not worth taking up."

"If the place is sold," said Louise, "I don't think father will see the effects scattered. He may want them himself. What he doesn't require, I dare say he will give to you if you need them?"

"Now, Louise, what makes you think I need them? Can't you be generous enough to imagine that I respect them?"

"Some of them, the old silver for example," said Cicely.

"Well," retorted Mrs. Bland, "you don't. It ought to be given to somebody who does. You couldn't carry it around in your trunk."

Cicely replied only with a reproachful look, and Louise who was a little piqued at the turn the conversation had taken came to her defense. "You are doing Cicely a great injustice," she said; "like myself she is not thinking of plunder, but

only of how the old home can be preserved to the family."

"And what is the use of thinking about that, unless we can raise money enough to buy it and put it in a glass case. I wouldn't live here another winter if it was given to me. I understand the sisters of charity want to buy it and make a home for city waifs—that wouldn't be changing its character much—but they will not pay the price."

"What is the price?" asked Cicely.

"Fifty thousand dollars," said Mrs. Blood. "I got the agent to tell me, and he said he could get it from a whiskey manufacturer, only Mr. Van Houghton objected to having it turned into a distillery. I suppose if the old gentleman keeps up his winter's gadding he will take forty thousand dollars, for he must have money."

"Isn't that a great sacrifice, Louise?" inquired Cicely. "You ought to know."

"The place ought to be worth a great deal more," was the reply, "if it were productive. I am sorry to say it has not been kept up since the death of our mother."

"And what pride she took in keeping it up," mused Cicely. "Now it has got to disappear utterly."

"Are you going to keep house or board, Louise?" asked Mrs. Blood, without paying any attention to Cicely.

"I haven't decided on my plans," replied Louise. "Mere domestic comfort must wait till important work is done. You must consider me as a working woman for a year to come."

"I only asked you because I supposed if you furnished a place you would want the piano. Naomi and I have talked the matter over. She expects to go to Europe with the Ferrises in June, and can store the pictures and some of the furniture till she comes back. I can take care of the library and linen. You see we consider it a duty to save our mother's things from the desecration of an auction, and we knew that you and Cicely would take no interest in the matter."

"You are making a great mistake," interrupted Cicely. "I at least take a very great interest in the matter, but it is not the

interest you are exhibiting. On the contrary it is the interest which my mother had and which I have inherited—an interest in the perpetuity of the Van Houghton home from which no member of the family can be thrust out."

"I quite agree with you," said Naomi. "If mother were alive I should not have to begin house-hunting next week—and such dreadful spring weather!"

CHAPTER XVIII.

CIRCUMSTANCES have a gregarious quality that cannot escape the attention. They assume the air of misfortune and come in groups, like wolves, and then after a season, *presto*, they are changed into doves and bring olive branches and coo us blessings without our invitation. On this phenomenon are built popular superstitions and the doctrine of good and evil luck, together with the flipping of a penny and the influence of the stars.

Here was a girl, in the woods, one might say, of her destiny, with pitiless, grim, and voracious jaws protruding from every path of escape. Go to her father's new establishment she could not without a shrinking. To live with Louise was impossible. But she must get out of the old home. She thought of her brother and the homely Mary Geike only to feel a little shudder as she recalled the place on Seventh Street. Then, as all girls do who at sometime have to face this problem, she began to ask herself what she could do in the world to support herself, and fell back upon her music and her drawing and her capacity as a governess, all of which, viewed abstractly, had a charm of independence, but, resolved practically, shrank into imbecility and penniless drudgery. It was not in Cicely's power to revolve the problem in her mind practically. She allowed her imagination to help her out. She was a fairly good musician. She would go to the city, take a room, ask her father to give her the grand piano that stood in the music room. She would drum up all the friends of the family and get pupils enough to pay her expenses, and she would be at least her own mistress and

snap her fingers at the barking circumstances.

Tossing about at night in the hallucination of half sleep and once or twice waking Louise up, this poor gleam of rescue grew into a delivering radiance. It was all settled. She would get up in the morning, speak to Mrs. Blood about the piano, leave everything else, and set out for herself.

So reassuring was all this in the twilight of reverie that Cicely got up in the morning with a vague impression that something fortunate had happened, and when it was recalled in its details it looked rather pallid. The impulse to realize it remained and she began at once to unfold it to Louise with the coaxing ardor of one who wants indulgence and sympathy. Louise commended the scheme.

"I can help you very much," she said, "and I understand the desire for independence that actuates you. Next to coming with me it is the most practical and common sense thing you can do. The moment your talents are recognized you will be your own mistress."

But observe how small a grain of sand will disarrange the machinery of a girl's projects.

These sisters talked the matter over until it assumed in their fancies all the proportions of a completed work. They made a list of people to see at once. There was Cicely's old music teacher, Professor Cowan, who had a conservatory somewhere in the city, and who always said Cicely should become a professional pianist. There was Mrs. Russell, who sent for Cicely to play at her musicales, and who had a large circle of acquaintances. "Why," said Louise, "you can have a nice suite of rooms somewhere near me, and I can run in on you, and we can go to church together, and St. Clair can be of enormous help."

So they suspended operations at the home, and hurried off to the city to call on Professor Cowan at his conservatory. "You had better let me do the talking," said Louise; "you can't talk about yourself very well."

They waited in an ante-room full of young ladies with music rolls, and Cicely supposing them to be pupils was impressed with the air of anxious prosperity the place wore.

By and by they were admitted to the professor in his office, very private and secure, save for the penetrating sounds of scales and the loud fingering of simultaneous keyboards.

The old professor received them politely, did not disguise his admiration for his former pupil who had grown astonishingly beautiful since last he saw her, and Louise, with the air of one who comes to bestow a favor, recounted their projects and added, "We knew that you would be delighted to hear of our determination and lend us your advice and assistance."

When Louise had finished, the old gentleman, who had worn a quiet little smile with a tired look in it, shook his head with negative gentleness, and said:

"My dear madame, times have changed very much. Effery body plays the peeahno now. But how does effery body play him; eh? The war has sent all the ladies of the South to New York to play the peeahno; they play him—like Julien, like Gottschalk, like Moscheles, eh? vere well, the public will not listen to them, they must play him like Liszt, like Rubinstein. My dear madame, how shall we find pupils for the ladies when the ladies are more numerous than the pupils, eh? You shall play me the nocturne in B flat,—number one. I shall refresh my memory with your fingers."

Cicely took her gloves off and sat down at a piano. She had to ask him for the music and he brought her a sheet of Chopin with some surprise that she needed it. Then he listened and the girl tried her best to do it as she had once done it, with the dreaming confluence of feeling and art. He stopped her before she had reached the double *p*, and with an exaggerated distress that would have been comic to a disinterested onlooker, he cried, "Ah, *ma belle*, what have you been doing? Your fingers are stiff, you have lost the—eh—what you call the spirit—the fragrance. You have not played him in months, eh—in years! No, no, no, no, you have been thinking of something else, and your old love has been neglected. Pardon—my charming young lady," he added in an apologetic tone as he saw the effect of his speech in Cicely's face, "pardon, you shall

hear the truth from me because the truth is of the old school. If you will play the peeahno to make charming acquaintances, that is one thing—you can make them without it—if you will play it with the grand *few*, you shall come back to me and take lessons in German, then you shall practice *La Damnation de Faust*, because the piano of to-day must be an orchestra and not a harp, *ma belle*."

"You see," said Louise when they came away, "that we have been standing still. Are you not discouraged?"

"Not a bit," replied Cicely.

But Cicely did not always recognize her own feelings.

They laid their case before Mrs. Russell in that lady's sumptuous drawing-room.

"To speak frankly," said she when she had heard them through, "I think you are selecting the most bemobbed and hopeless field for the exercise of your talents. There is no money in it for any but the star people—the great concert players. The market is not merely overstocked, it is—to use an expression of Russell's—'glutted.' If I had your talents, my dear, I'd take to literature, journalism, anything, before I'd identify myself with the army of piano players who have got to be one of the greatest social nuisances, next to begging letter writers, that we have."

Even this did not apparently discourage Cicely. She insisted on looking at some furnished rooms, and pointed out to Louise, with an exuberant girlish delight, how nicely the old grand piano would fit into that alcove.

She wrote an affectionate and begging letter to her father: "I only want two things," she said. "Send me some money for my personal wants and give me the piano that is in the music room." Louise took her to the hotel to lunch. Mr. St. Clair had gone to Chicago to lecture. They grew closer to each other by this day's companionship, and when they went back to Upsandowns to complete their packing, Louise said it reminded her of old times.

Still it was impossible for Cicely to be any less a woman than before, and in fact she now came very near being what Mrs. Blood called positively mean. But I don't think she ever suspected it.

The moment she disclosed to that sister her project and told her that it included the possession of the family piano and that she had written to her father about it, there was a look of astonishment, a gesture of anger, and a call for Naomi.

"Well, I like that," exclaimed Mrs. Blood. "You first declare that you will have nothing to do with the effects and then set about to carry off the most valuable of them."

Cicely tried to present it in a coaxing way. "Now, Kate," she said, "it's the only thing that I can make any use of, and you cannot. It will enable me to earn my living, and you never touch it."

"Well, upon my word, just as if you didn't know that all the arrangements had been made about the piano! It was an understood thing from the day of the funeral that I was to have the use of it for my children. If you had consulted me I could have saved you the trouble of writing to pa, for I wrote to him a month ago about it. Why, I have ordered a case made to move it in."

"What did father say?" asked Cicely.

"He said enough to enable me to assume the responsibility."

"And you are going to move the piano away?"

"Yes, of course. Did you and Louise come up here to prevent it? Cicely, you astonish and grieve me."

Whereupon the two sisters rushed to their respective coadjutors.

Louise was the only one who appeared to be really hurt. Her advice was characteristic of her. "Give it up, Cicely. Let her have it. All the pianos in the world would not atone for an ignoble squabble among sisters. Besides, you can hire a better instrument for five dollars a month."

"Very likely," replied Cicely, "but no other instrument in the world would do for me. I cannot play Chopin on any other piano, you saw that yourself. In fact, I shall give up the whole idea of teaching music unless I can have that particular instrument."

Then Louise made a remarkable observation. "Cicely," she said, "I thought I had most of the weaknesses of our sex, but

you are making me feel quite masculine."

"I wish," replied Cicely, "that I could have made you masculine both in feeling and physique a month ago. What might I not do if I had a man to help me, instead of a man to rob me."

And with that Miss Impulse marched out.

Here was the grain of sand that threw the whole engine out of gear and actually changed the voyage.

Down she went to the library, and straightway to work at diplomacy. First a long letter to her father, and then she summoned Martin.

That amiable and faithful servitor who had always been on terms of parental familiarity with the young lady was astonished at her assumption of proprietary dignity as she sat in her father's big leathern chair and beckoned to him to take a seat.

"Martin," she began, "has there been anything removed from this place lately? Tell the truth."

Martin began to squirm immediately. "There's nothing been taken without the knowin's of some of the family, miss."

"Well, what was it? Come, out with it. You know whom this property belongs to, and I represent him till he can get here."

"I'm very glad to hear it, miss, I'm sure. Seein' as he had nobody to represent him in particular, unless it was meself—in the fields, where every fence would have been down long ago save for me doin' it."

"It is necessary that Mr. Van Houghton's property, down to the smallest item, shall remain on this place until an inventory can be made. Now, then, what has been moved?"

"Oh, not a stick, miss, savin' what your own sisters took."

"What did they take?"

More squirming.

"I'm sure they would be rememberin' it better than meself, and would tell more particular loike."

"Don't you intend to tell me, Martin?"

"Well, miss, there's the gray mare,—that's lent, and the phaeton, and—"

"Lent to whom?"

"I do be seeing Mrs. Feltner a-driving 'em."

"Were there not some boxes driven to Suffern?"

"Yes'm, I drove 'em meself. I think they was bottles and linen, because I nailed 'em up."

"And was there a case ordered for the piano?"

"Yes'm, the carpenter, Mr. Bayliss, took the measure of it."

"Very well. Now I want to ask you something else. There seem to be men hanging round the grounds; who are they?"

"I haven't seen 'em, least ways nobody who is a stranger."

"Why, I have seen a man once or twice from my window; he appeared to be skulking in the trees at the stream."

"It must be Mr. McBurney, then, but I didn't know he was to be ordered off. I'll set the dogs on him to-morrow, miss."

"Mr. McBurney!" with delicious surprise, "why should he wander about the grounds in a mysterious manner, and not come to the house?"

"Beggin' your pardon, I suppose he's admirin' the estate. There doesn't seem to be any harm in him, but I'll tell him you don't like it, and warn him off."

"You needn't go so far. I will tell him myself. If you meet him accidentally, you may say I wish to see him."

"All roight. I'll see him accidentally before he can shake the mud off his top-boots—he 's walkin' in the wet meadow now."

"Oh, don't make it a business, any time will do—when you run across him."

"Yes'm. I'll run across him now."

"Very well, Martin. That is all. When the young gentleman has a few minute's leisure, I'd like to ask him what he means."

When Martin went out, the young mistress got up, gave the fire a poke, walked once or twice past the mantel mirror with her head turned sidewise, sat down and drummed with her white fingers on the library table, stood a moment in front of the old portrait of her mother, which looked at her with mysterious complacency, and finally, when she heard the sound of a quick tread on the veranda, she gave a little start, reseated herself, and assumed the severe air that had

been so carefully bestowed upon Martin.

Mr. McBurney was ushered in a few minutes later, in corduroy suit and top-boots, and stood bowing and flushed at the library door.

"Oh," said Cicely, looking up, "is that you? I told Martin if he saw you during the week to say to you that I wanted to ask you a question. I really didn't know that you were just outside. It was not of urgent importance."

"I am at your service, Miss Van Houghton," replied Mr. McBurney, with resignation.

"Yes," continued Cicely, making an effort to be colloquial and informal, "I had an idea you were in the city—I have been there myself you know."

"I went down on a dash," said Mr. McBurney, "to see the performance of 'As You Like It'—favorite play of mine. Melancholy boughs, and that sort of thing. Stopped at your brother's and took dinner with him. Came up on a late train."

"Took dinner at my brother's," repeated Cicely with genuine surprise, as she ran her eye over his swell corduroy attire. "I didn't know that Banny was in condition to entertain people."

"Oh, course not, but he and I are old chums, and it's jolly good to meet a brick like that who laughs down the throat of misfortune. Great stuff in Ban. I always said so. He can call on me for anything. But he never will. Why, I always go there when I am in town."

"And then," said Cicely, with genuine interest, "you went to the play."

"Yes. Did you ever see *Modjeska*?"

"No; I never saw even the play. I have only read it."

"Ye—s. You'd make a stunning *Rosalind*."

"I? Oh, dear no. I'm not a bit like her. She had somebody hanging round who cut her name in the trees. *Beatrice* is much more my style of woman."

"*Beatrice*?"

"Yes, indeed. She has one great line—'*Kill Claudio*.' But then, of course, she must have a *Benedick*."

"If you are thinking of private theatricals, Miss Van Houghton, I should like to play Benedick."

"Private theatricals!" exclaimed Cicely with undisguised disdain. "I was thinking of a real Benedick who would kill Claudio if he were told to do so."

"You surprise me. I don't think I quite understand you. I didn't know you had any killing to do."

"Killing is metaphorical, stupid. How dull of comprehension you are! Of course I don't want anybody killed. But I do want something accomplished, and if I knew a man who,—well, who respected me enough," she took breath here—it was a momentary break as if her discretion had woke up. But it gave Mr. McBurney the chance to say with admirable composure, "If you knew a man, Miss Van Houghton, who respected you, he would—"

"He would lend me some of his wretched masculine brains in a practical and honest way—that is if he were good for anything but private theatricals."

Mr. McBurney looked intently at the top of the cane that was standing up between his legs. Cicely thought he was at the moment a rare picture of imbecility. But presently he said,

"Well, if I am not the man, what did you send for me for, Miss Van Houghton?"

"Send for you! Good gracious! I didn't know that you were waiting just outside the door—did you ever hear of drowning people clutching at straws?"

The young man gave a quick rescuing glance. But his long limbs were passive. Her danger, whatever it might be, was not sufficient to move his muscles.

"You sent for me," he said, "because I could be of some practical assistance to you. You know you have only to command me. Speak plainly, Miss Van Houghton, what can I do?"

Cicely had vaguely made up her mind that when it came to this she would say with as much of the fervor of Beatrice as she could command, "Buy Upsandowns," but now that the opportunity confronted her she hesitated and trimmed and said,

"There are a few points of agreement in our characters: you admire Upsandowns—you spend a good deal of your time wandering over it—and you are fond of my brother—we can speak of these things without being sentimental, you know. My father has offered the place for sale—it is going to break up the family, and I naturally feel very acutely about it."

"Naturally, Miss Van Houghton, you feel distressed at leaving the old place. I can understand that, I do myself. It's been like a fairyland to me."

"Yes, at one time you spoke as if you would like to settle down here," said Cicely demurely. "Have you changed your mind?"

"Yes. You see I made one or two mistakes, and was a little disappointed, but that's all past."

"What's past, Mr. McBurney?"

"My foolishness."

Curiously enough this must have piqued Cicely with its imputation of the transitoriness of her power.

She flushed up a little. "Are you able to buy Upsandowns?" she asked.

"Able? Do you ask if I have the means, or the resolution?"

"Oh, either or both."

"Miss Van Houghton, you surprise me."

"Why should I?" she asked with sudden desperation. "You don't know how miserably despondent a girl is when her home is broken up. She passes out of that into the market, or she becomes a pensioner. I cannot earn my living and there is no other way that I know of to be independent. My family all think that marriage is my destiny—perhaps it is. I am not practical but I am unsophisticated. I am going to offer myself with the place."

"Good gracious!" said Mr. McBurney.

"You were good enough to make me an indirect proposal of marriage some time ago. If you will buy Upsandowns and all that is in it I will marry you—there!"

Her companion was staring at her with blank incredulity. It stung her a little that he did not jump headlong at the suggestion.

"If you have anything to say," she exclaimed, "you must say it quickly. My

humor will not wait on your calculations."

"Miss Van Houghton, if you think I would purchase you, you do not know me. I would not have you make such a sacrifice, and I would not accept it. It pains me to think that you could make such a proposal to me."

There was a scarlet tint growing on her cheek. It was the flash of shame rather than the flame of indignation. Mr. McBurney had risen and was standing in an embarrassed manner looking down at the floor. A second or two of silence intervened and then there came a rap at the library door. It proved to be a telegram for Cicely. She tore open the envelope. It was from her father. She read it with confused feelings.

"Upsandowns sold. Do nothing till I arrive. Notify sisters. VAN HOUGHTON."

Her hand dropped at her side limply with the message in it. She passed her other hand over her eyes as if to clear her vision. Then she handed the telegram to her visitor. He looked at it carelessly, she thought superciliously.

"Kindly forget what I have said, Mr. McBurney. I ask your magnanimity instead of your help."

"I knew of the sale," he replied.

The acknowledgment seemed to her at that moment to be the last touch of cruelty. "You knew it and let me go on. It was rather contemptible. You appear to know more about my family affairs than I do myself."

"Excuse me, that is impossible, but I couldn't help knowing of this because I am the purchaser."

"You, you the purchaser!"

"Yes, but I purchased without any conditions and have not tied you to any mercenary contract."

"You were generous truly! Why did you purchase it?"

"As an investment; I never heard that you wanted it, and I came to the conclusion that you did not want me."

"You jump to conclusions rashly—I mean that you make mistakes about me that are very stupid."

"I always told you I was stupid, and I thought you were beginning to believe it."

"You have bought our home, have you? And what are you going to do with it?"

"Keep it as a Forest of Arden for my private theatricals," said Mr. McBurney.

Here they both sat down again, but did not look at each other.

"It is a delightful scheme as an investment," Cicely said. "Shall you play all the parts?"

"Oh dear no, I shall always dream here, I suppose, like a romantic duffer—of the first Rosalind, who was too bright and good for me."

"Please don't be silly, Mr. McBurney. You know very well that I am not too bright and good for you, and I dislike that kind of gush at such a moment. It's the height of absurdity to talk of playing 'As You Like It' without a Rosalind."

"Oh, but I shall keep the memory of one forever."

"I believe you are capable of it. Some men prefer memories to present realities."

"And some women detest that kind of man, don't they?"

"They certainly do, but they can overcome it, I suppose."

"Can they really?"

"Where there's a will there's a way. I've copy-book authority for it. Will you tell me what induced you to buy Upsandowns?"

"I don't think you would understand it. I hardly do myself."

"I'll try to."

"It was a sentimental impulse. It was identified in my mind with the newest and purest experiences of my life. I went to my governor, I told him I wanted him to invest my money in a piece of property. He said if I would settle down and get married he'd do it. I promised. He did it. At first I had a rash notion that I could get a certain kind of an ideal woman—then I learned that it wouldn't work—that my ideal would probably marry some better man than I am, and I said, Well, I'll keep her in the old frame anyway. I'll make the whole thing over to her, and take it out in seeing

how much happier she is than I can be. It was the notion of an idiot, Miss Van Houghton."

"Hardly that, Mr. McBurney. We all have rash and impracticable impulses that are not idiotic. I don't think that after my exhibition of myself I can criticise you."

"No," said Mr. McBurney, "we both seem to have had about the same sort of impulse, after all."

"Oh no, yours was unselfish, mine was awfully mean—now that I think it over. In some things, I think perhaps—I may be stupider than you are."

"Don't say that. I've learned that you can't get over your contempt for me, but that shows that you are superior. You can show me how futile some of our desires are, but don't rob me of my dream."

"Mr. McBurney, can't you see that I am getting over my contempt for you? What is the use of our talking if you can't see a thing that is as plain as that?"

"Do you mean to say that you could learn to tolerate me in time?"

"Why, I'd have to in certain conditions. I've been tolerating you for half an hour. I've sacrificed my pride. I've humiliated myself. I've almost asked you to marry me and—save me—and you sit there like a wooden man, and talk about ideals and other rubbish, until I haven't got a bit of self-respect left."

And here there was a hysterical sob which ended in a burst of tears.

Mr. McBurney was absurdly affected.

"Miss Van Houghton," he said, "please don't. If you go to pieces like that, I'll have it all tangled up. It's like getting a biff under the left ear, you know! It's a good deal better to take it all back than to suffer over it that way. I'm not the sort of fellow to take advantage of a girl's foolish words."

This brought a little gleam of lightning out of the shower.

"Foolish words!" she said, suddenly. I'd like you to understand, sir, that a girl can be impulsive and rash without being a fool. I know that I have lowered myself

in your estimation, but I'm not in the habit of saying a thing one minute and taking it back the next—like a man."

"Certainly, of course not!" exclaimed Mr. McBurney with undue corroborative emphasis.

She looked squarely at him through her April eyes. Never had he seen them look so beautiful as now, with a sudden gleam of sunshine in them.

"You can understand, can't you," she said, "that if a woman wanted to play Beatrice and had built a nice little project in which she was to command Benedick to kill Claudio, it naturally makes her cry a little to find when the time comes that he has had Claudio nicely killed all the while and never said anything about it? Men will never understand women."

She put her hand over her eyes with an unconscious gesture, as if they were betraying too much, and the young man caught a flashing light as if joy were looking through.

"No," he said, "man is a practical sort of brute, and he thinks it doesn't matter much so long as Claudio is dead. You'll have to give me a little time to get it all straight. At first I thought I was to help you. Now it seems as if you were helping me."

"It is odd," said Cicely. "We must have been helping each other, and didn't know it."

"And you don't feel so much contempt for me as you did?"

"No, not so much."

"And you might get to like me seriously?"

"I could make a brave effort, Mr. McBurney. We never know what we can do till we try."

He was puzzled for a second. He got up. His masculine impulse was to put his arm around her. But a fear that such presumption would break up the vision deterred him.

"Miss Van Houghton," he said, "Cicely, will you let me kiss your hand?"

They were both standing and looking at each other. Then the girl's eyes dropped and she said,

"It's too theatrical. Kiss me on the cheek."

(To be continued.)

THE ENDOWMENT OF THE CHURCH OF ENGLAND.

BY JAMES GUSTAVUS WHITELEY.

COUNT CAVOUR showed his knowledge of the human mind when he made use of the expression "a free church in a free country" (*libera chiesa in libero stato*). The deduction is not necessarily logical, but to some people the phrase has a convincing sound and at present it is doing duty in England. Dr. Johnson delighted in exposing the shallowness of such epigrammatic platitudes. When some one in his presence admired Brooke's line,

"Who rules o'er freemen should himself be free,"

Johnson replied: "I cannot agree with you. It might as well be said,

"Who drives fat oxen should himself be fat."

Lord Rosebery's ministry has fallen and with it has fallen the bill for the disestablishment of the church in Wales. The measure was part of an effort to disestablish the Church of England by sections, and its failure at the present time will probably give the electors an opportunity to more thoroughly understand the questions involved before another attack shall have been made upon the church. Even in England an impression prevails among a large number of people that the church is supported by the government and that the clergy are paid by the state. This is not the case. Mr. Gladstone replied very concisely to an inquiry on the subject, "The clergy of the Church of England are not state-paid." The church is entirely maintained by its own funds without any cost to the state.

Every measure for disestablishment has carried with it a scheme for disendowment. This combination may be advantageous for political reasons but it is not logically necessary.

Those "relations between the Church of England and the state, which constitute the establishment of the church," said Lord Selborne, "are in their true nature securities taken by the state against possible excesses of uncontrolled ecclesiastical power, rather

than privileges conferred upon the church by the state."*

The "establishment" grew up gradually, and it is not the result of any one act. In early times, when the church was rich and powerful and "there was no balance of power from opposing forces of non-conformity," the state deemed it necessary, for its own protection, to exercise some control over ecclesiastical affairs, lest the civil power should become subordinate to the ecclesiastical. In this way, and by acts which cannot now be traced, grew up the existing establishment. The "Liberation Society" wishes not only to "liberate" the unwilling church from state control, but insists also upon liberating her from the burden of her wealth. The advocates of disestablishment seem unwilling that the church should retain her possessions and at the same time be free from state control.

The principal property of the church consists of: (1) fabrics of churches, with their consecrated enclosures, and their plate, furniture, and other accessories; (2) parsonage houses and glebes; (3) lands belonging to bishoprics, and to cathedral and collegiate churches; (4) tithes, or lands, money payments, or rent charges, in commutation of tithe; (5) voluntary offerings, oblations, fees, etc.

This property has been acquired at divers times and in sundry manners, and it belongs, not to the church as a unit, but to the several churches, bishops, chapters, and other bodies of which the church is composed. Professor Freeman states very accurately that, "the Church of England, as a single body, has no property." The fact is recognized in the Coronation Oath by which the sovereign swears to protect the "churches."

These churches hold their property in the same lawful way in which other corporations,

* "A Defense of the Church of England," by the Earl of Selborne, page 74.

charitable trusts, and dissenters' chapels, hold their property.

From the introduction of Christianity into England until the present time, churches have been built and endowed by various persons. These were irrevocable gifts and were solemnly set apart for the service of God. Some were the gifts of laymen, some of ecclesiastics, some of princes and kings; and here it may be well to remark that the fact of property having been given by the king does not imply any right of reclamation by the crown. In theory, all property is held under grant from the king.

Many of these old edifices have fallen into ruin and have been rebuilt out of the private resources of bishops, churchmen, or the corporations with which they were connected. In that very clearly written book, "*A Defense of the Church of England*," the late Lord Selborne said: "Almost all these churches have undergone renovation, alteration, and addition at different times. They are monuments of the Christian zeal of many generations of churchmen."^{*} The same authority estimates that, between the years 1840 and 1884, the sum of £44,841,275 was voluntarily given for the building and restoration of churches and cathedrals.[†] If these edifices were confiscated, the church would be despoiled, not only of the original gifts, but also of all the wealth she has expended upon them.

The state did not, as many people imagine, at some distant period endow the church with its present possessions. The facts are that the churches, bishoprics, etc., have at different times received from many sources voluntary and irrevocable gifts, many of them of more ancient date than the monarchy itself; that these lands, churches, and endowments have been held under the old titles until the present time; and that churchmen have for centuries spent their own money in maintaining and improving the property thus legally acquired.

Tithes, which form a large part of the ecclesiastical revenue, are of great antiquity. "Abraham," said Dr. Selden, "paid

tithes to Melchizedek. What then? It was very well done of him. It does not follow that I must pay tithes, any more than I am bound to imitate any other action of Abraham." St Augustine and his successors held a different opinion, however, and they convinced the Anglo-Saxons that it was their duty to imitate Abraham in this respect at least. With the dissemination of Christianity, the custom of tithe-giving spread over the whole island. At first these offerings were purely voluntary. "The tithe," says Professor Freeman, "can hardly be said to have been granted by the state. The facts of the case rather are that the church preached the payment of tithe as a duty, and that the state gradually came to enforce that duty by legal sanctions."^{**}

Many landowners who had built churches on their estates and had endowed them with glebes and parsonages also gave the tithes of a certain district for the support of the incumbent. This district usually became the parish. Lords of manors and other great landowners not only granted tithes from their estates to parish churches, but also to capitular bodies and to monasteries.

Tithes are no longer paid in kind. Some have been commuted for lands or for money payments. In 1836 an act of Parliament was passed converting all tithes into yearly rent charges, varying each year according to the average grain produce for the seven preceding years.

Upon the dissolution of the monasteries, under the laws of Henry VIII., the rectorial tithes belonging to those establishments passed into the possession of the crown. A great part of them were re-distributed among lay proprietors, and since that time have been held by laymen as ordinary heritable property. Tithes are in reality paid by the landowners, as tithe-free land commands a higher rent than land bearing the rent charge.

These tithes, lands, and buildings constitute the principal property of the church. There are, besides, fluctuating offerings and gifts. It is estimated that in the twenty-five years, from 1860 to 1884, the sum of £46,-

^{*} Page 113.

[†] "*A Defense of the Church of England*," page 174.

^{**} "*Disestablishment and Disendowment*," by Prof. Freeman, page 19.

000,000 was given by churchmen for the "ordinary purposes of Christian work," besides the sum for church building which has been already mentioned.* During that period there was no parliamentary money grant to the Church of England, but in the preceding sixty years the sum of £1,500,000 had been granted for church building, and £1,100,000 in augmentation of Queen Anne's Bounty Fund.

This fund was formed in 1704. Certain imposts called "first fruits" and "tenths" had been placed upon the clergy ostensibly for the purpose of supporting the Crusades. After the Crusades these taxes were continued for the benefit of the pope; and again, after the Reformation, they were given to the king by act of Parliament. This tax upon the clergy was returned to the clergy by Queen Anne, who granted the funds to a corporation with a view to the augmentation and improvement of poor benefices.

About sixty years ago a body known as the Ecclesiastical Commissioners was formed. It consists, principally, of the archbishops, bishops, and members of the government; and in their hands is placed the management of estates belonging to episcopal sees and to capitular bodies. The stipends of bishops and other dignified clergy were then fixed by law, but they are paid out of the funds in the hands of the commissioners, and not by the state.

Church-rates, a compulsory tax upon the

inhabitants of parishes for the repair of churches, have been abolished, and money for that purpose is now obtained from voluntary gifts.

It will have been observed that (not considering voluntary gifts) the chief wealth of the church consists of (1) lands, fabrics of churches, parsonages, etc., and (2) tithes, held by good title by the different churches and bodies which compose the Church of England. These are the two great classes of church property that would be affected by disendowment.

It is undoubtedly true that the state may lawfully confiscate this endowment, just as the state may legally confiscate the property of an individual. If certain land is needed for a railway, or other public improvement, it is condemned and taken away from the, perhaps unwilling, owner, some compensation being given him. All property is at the mercy of the state. "An act of Parliament may be unjust but it cannot be unlawful." There should be a better reason for disendowment than mere desire to fill the public coffers. It should be carefully considered whether the church is fulfilling her mission, and whether her endowment is being applied to those purposes for which it was given.

The legality of confiscation gives, however, little comfort to churchmen, for, as Dr. Selden remarked, "'Tis all one, to be plundered by a troop of horse or to have a man's goods taken from him by an order from the council table."

* Official Year Book of the Church of England (1886).

GOOD-BYE, SWEET YEAR, GOOD-BYE!

BY LISA A. FLETCHER.

I LOOKED abroad when the chill day was dying,
And breathed a pensive sigh;
A few late, hurried birds were flying
Athwart the autumn sky.

I looked at morn when sunrise cast its glory
Over the woodland scene,
And read there Nature's farewell story
The fluttering leaves between.

I gazed again when the sad day was dying,
And breathed a deeper sigh;
The latest bird was southward flying—
Good-bye, sweet year, good-bye!

WOMAN'S COUNCIL TABLE.

CHRISTMAS LORE.

BY MISS ANNA HINRICHS.

"I heard the bells on Christmas Day
Their old, familiar carols play,
And wild and sweet
The words repeat
Of peace on earth, good-will to men!"

THE popular observances of this glad festival are of very ancient origin.

All pagan nations of antiquity were worshipers of the sun. This luminous body was a visible demonstration of the Deity. From it radiated light, heat, and life. The object of worship was always the same, although it was recognized by different people under different names. The time of celebration was also universally identical—the time of the winter solstice, about the time of the shortest day of the year. The commemoration was really an expression of joy over the heightened intensity and benefit of the sun, and the near approach of spring and the growing season.

The old Romans called their Christmas *Saturnalia*. Among this people the festival granted to slave and freeman a special license for enjoyment. The Scandinavians worshiped *Woden*, the father of *Thor*. The burning of the yule log is a ceremony that originated with this people. At their feast of *Sunl*, at the winter solstice, they kindled huge bonfires in honor of their god *Thor*. The custom of burning the yule log has been transmitted to various parts of the world. During feudal times many a ponderous block of yule has been dragged to the spacious hearth in noble halls. All wayfarers bared their heads in reverence as the great log was triumphantly being carried from the forest. Its entrance was hailed with song:

"Come, bring with a noise,
My merry, merry boys,
The Christmas log to the firing;
While my good dame, she
Bids ye all be free
And drink to your hearts' desiring!"

The yule or Christmas candle lent cheer to this festive occasion. Sometimes after half the log had been burned the remaining half was carefully stored in the cellar as a preventive against fire and misfortune. It was considered an evil omen if a squinting or a barefooted person happened in the room while the log was burning, and the presence of a flat-footed woman foreboded great loss and sorrow.

To the Persians the god of light was *Mithras*; as *Baal* or *Bel* he was known to the Phœnicians. With the ancient Goths he was *Yule*. Our word *wheel* is a derivation from the Gothic *giul* or *hiul*, meaning wheel. In the old Clog almanacs a wheel marks the turning of the year, Yuletide.

The festival begins with Christmas Eve and closes with Candlemas Day. The pretty custom of decorating the home dates back many centuries. It probably originated with the *Saturnalia* of the old Romans. They trimmed their temples and dwellings with green boughs. The favorite decorations were holly, rosemary, bay, laurel, and cypress. Holly has continued to remain the favorite Christmas green through the course of ages. In the year 600 its use was forbidden by the church council, because of its paganistic origin. Evidently the decree was neither rigidly enforced nor obeyed, for it is estimated that over a million dollars are spent in Europe and America for Christmas holly.

Until quite recently the enormous quantity of holly consumed in this country was all imported from Europe. Now, however, it is extensively cultivated on this side of the Atlantic, and the demand for it seems to have grown with the supply. It represents a most profitable industry, giving needed employment to hundreds of men at a season when they would otherwise be without work.

American holly is more vigorous and supple than the European. This growth of rich green foliage with its profusion of bright scarlet berries is a universal emblem of Christmas. In floral poesy it signifies foresight—a foresight into the future that reveals the glad tidings, "Spring will soon be here." Then,

"Sing to the holly, the Christmas holly,
That hangs over peasant and king;
While we laugh and carouse 'neath its glittering boughs,
To the Christmas holly we'll sing!"

In point of antiquity the mistletoe rivals the holly. Its habit is most unique. It never grows in the ground, but flourishes in the branches and forks of the loftiest trees, rough-barked trees like the oak, poplar, elm, and apple. It has no root, but adheres tenaciously to the parent tree into which it seems to have been grafted. Surrounded with mystic associations, it is not strange that the plant was believed to have been propagated in its natural state by a bird, the mistle thrush, which fed on its berries. Its artificial propagation was long considered impossible. Happily, the problem is now solved. The bruised berries are exceedingly glutinous; consequently when crushed they adhere readily to the rough bark, where they germinate, and a luxuriant growth follows. The mistletoe is now rarely found in the oak but it abounds in old orchards. It has but little foliage, merely a few leaves in couples here and there. The stalk is thickly studded with the white waxlike berries, each of which represents possibilities of unutterable bliss to youth and maid. Like holly, the mistletoe was formerly imported from Europe, but at present the native production is abundant. The choicest supplies come from Texas and New Mexico.

The history of this interesting plant is replete with legends and romance. To the Druids it was sacred. With priests clothed in white, the emblem of purity, they went forth to gather the mistletoe. To the oak on which the sacred growth was found was bound their sacrifice of beasts—often, alas! of men. The chief Druid then ascended the tree and cut the plant with a golden sickle. As the pieces were rever-

ently severed, he dropped them one by one into the robe of a fellow priest who stood underneath to catch them. After the tree was stripped the chief Druid descended and the hapless victims were slaughtered. The sacred fruit of this harvest was divided into small portions and for fabulous prices distributed among the people. Sprigs of it were tacked above doorways as an assurance to the Druids of welcome and protection from hunger and cold. Its rare appearance in the oak tree led Druid priests to attribute special powers to the oak mistletoe. A favorite site of their humble temple was under the shadows of its glistening fruit. The ancient Druids of Great Britain worshiped it under the name of "all-heal." When cut by priests it was credited with every possible power and virtue; when gathered by unsanctioned hands it was supposed to bring disease, disaster, and death.

Many are the quaint legends in regard to the origin of kissing under the mistletoe. In rigid observance of the good old custom, there are but as many kisses allowed as there are berries on the bough suspended. With each kiss exacted as toll from the maid passing underneath, the gallant receiving the fine must pluck off one berry from the branch and give it to the fair victim as an offering of peace. She then casts the berry onto the burning yule, and her luck for the ensuing year is decided by the time it takes in crackling. However, all this formality has been abandoned; only the leading feature remains—the kiss.

The meaning of the mistletoe, "*I surmount difficulties*," is strikingly apparent. It is forcibly illustrated in the legend on which the origin of kissing under the mistletoe is based:

A royal prince, handsome and gifted, was hunting with an escort of friends. He became separated from his companions and wandered through the woods all day. At night he reached an old castle; he knocked at the gate, and after giving satisfactory explanation was admitted. The sole occupants of the ruin were a hideous old baron and his young daughter of marvelous beauty. The prince was not warmly welcomed, never-

theless he speedily became enamored of the fair maid. In the morning he ventured to express his infatuation, and the baron ordered him seized and rudely banished from the castle. For days the poor prince wandered disconsolately about in the mazelike forest. All but dead from hunger and fatigue, he met a fairy to whom he related his pitiful tale. She told him to return to the castle armed with a mistletoe bough. With this mystic plant in his possession, she assured him, the stern baron's power would succumb and he could win the fair princess with a touch of his lips. But, she cautioned, the bough must be plucked from a hollow oak growing beside a stream, and on the opposite bank must grow a willow stripped of all but two of its leaves. For weeks the love-sick prince searched for an oak of such bearings. All in vain. Utterly exhausted

he fell asleep under an oak tree. He awoke much refreshed and to his amazement beheld a rippling stream at his feet and just across a weeping willow with but two lonely leaves. Joyfully he climbed the tree, cut a branch from its topmost summit, and, "all difficulties surmounted," hastened to the castle and returned with his lovely Christmas bride. Through ages, ever since that happy morn,

"Under the mistletoe, pearly and green,
Meet the kind lips of the young and the old;
Under the mistletoe, hearts may be seen
Glowing as though they had never been cold;
Under the mistletoe peace and good-will
Mingle the spirits that long have been twain.
Yet, why should this holly and festival mirth
In the reign of old Christmas-tide only be found?
Hail it with joy in our yule-lighted mirth,
But let it not fade with the festival sound;
Hang up love's mistletoe over the earth,
And let us kiss under it all the year round!"

FEATHERED ACTORS.

BY COLETTE SMILEY.

AN oft-witnessed and most pitiful scene in nature is the portrayal of the helplessness of a cripple by a bird actor. The stage is commonly a grass plot or thicket, the actress a little mother whose young are as yet too weak or ignorant to flee from danger, and the audience a human being who by accident has entered uninvited into the feathered family circle. With a scream that mimics well the voice of one who has received a deadly wound, the feathered actress throws herself before the intruder, and then with disordered plumage and limping gait flounders away as one might do that was at the point of death.

So real are the actions of the bird that dogs and cats and, I suppose, most of the predatory animals are entirely deceived in nine cases out of ten. Unless the robber has his eye directly on the young, he is certain, I think, to be drawn off after the seemingly distressed actress. Even men have been deceived, especially when collecting ornithological specimens and after firing a gun at a bird. And no play ends

more happily than this when the robber dashes at the supposed cripple and she mounts triumphant on uninjured wings.

Such birds as quails, field sparrows, least sandpipers, oven birds, etc., that habitually nest on the ground, are the stars in this kind of acting, but there are others that do it well, though in less tragic fashion. The cuckoo, for instance, if one happens upon her nest of babies, will come without either a harsh cry or a ruffled feather and perch close at the hand of the intruder, and there with most graceful bowings of the head and fanlike motions of the tail invite attention. Then she floats a few feet away to another perch, where she bows and waves her plumes once more, to return again, however, if not followed, but if followed to float further still—mimicing a charming sprite in feathers that lures one on to the forest depths.

Never was an actress more earnest in her art, more eager for success, than these feathered ones, and never did any as a class succeed as well.

Another form of acting that is only less pitiful is found among the quail-like birds known as the tinamous. They are so shy and sensitive that they are actually frightened to death at times, and are commonly rendered incapable of flight by a sudden and unexpected attack from either dogs or men. When captured alive, as is often done with traps, and taken in the hand, they gasp once or twice and then, relaxing every muscle, fall over apparently dead. They play possum perfectly. The moment the captor's hand is relaxed, however, they return to life and instantly spring away with a whirring flight that is startling.

In a much more pleasing rôle is the bird when he appears in comic opera. The field for study of birds in this branch of art has been only touched upon by observers, but it will prove a source of lasting delight to all who will enter in. The star comedian among all feathered actors, the blackened end man of the feathered minstrel show, is the catbird. With one wing drooping, with head tilted to one side, with legs at an exaggerated angle, he eyes the song sparrow or the flute-voiced oriole as they pour their melody on the flowing gale—watches till the burst of song is done, and then with a flirt of his tail that says, "Ladies and gentlemen, I will now give you an accurate imitation of the silvery voiced tenor, Signor Oriolei," starts in on an imitation of the song that is excruciatingly funny. The writers on bird life speak, as a rule, of the song of the catbird as something that falls far short of what it ought to be. He is "ambitious of song but—" is about the average opinion. As well might we complain that the original Old Zip Coon could not take the place of Booth, or that the irrepressible Topsy was not fitted for the rôle of Marguerite. But the fame of the catbird will increase, no doubt, just as comic opera has grown in favor with theatergoers—by prodigious bounds.

The mocking bird, perhaps, might be called the typical actor, in that he can imitate almost all birds and yet with his own special song outdo them all. Nor is his art in his singing alone, for, carried away by

the exalting, inspiring influence of his theme, he leaps from his perch and mounts high in air, singing and soaring and singing and floating down again, till he fills the vault of heaven with his melody. If there was ever an actress who was truly the queen of song, then she was not a nightingale or a skylark, but our own ill-named mocking bird.

Curiously enough there are many mimics among birds. The thrush family have the power of imitation strikingly developed at times, and when one comes to make a study of this fact he is impressed with the usually overlooked fact that there is a very great difference between individuals of the same race. We think, for instance, that all robins are alike, until we come to study them carefully, and then we find them differing much as men do, though in a less degree. At my home in the Adirondacks is a robin that all the past season (I am writing in July, 1895) has made a practice of sitting on a fence about twenty rods from the house and singing, as night comes on, a perfect whip-poor-will's song. I have listened to him scores of times and have compared his notes with those of a real whip-poor-will singing on another fence beyond, and could not detect a difference. Yet I knew one was a robin because I saw him, and because, too, he would occasionally break into his own encouraging shouts of "cheer up! cheer up!" I fancy this robin learned his trick through having been reared in a nest in a thorn-apple tree, a year ago, close to the regular nightly perch of a whip-poor-will.

Of the ability of the blue jay to pose as a hen hawk, many stories can be told. These feathered rascals have the habit of coming about farm houses in the Adirondack region when the first warm days of spring draw the farmer out to a seat on the sunny side of outhouse or barn, and there, too, the barnyard fowl gather as well. This peaceful, contented group is pretty sure to attract the jay, who with many knowing twists of his head determines to give them a little show. Going away to the farther side of the sheltering structure, whatever it may be, he comes dashing over the ridgepole, and with a perfect imitation of the scream of a

hawk and a tremendous flutter of the wings he lands on the edge of the roof. That he enjoys the consternation his little performance creates—the skurrying of the hens for cover, and the imprecations of the startled farmers—will never be doubted by one who sees him in the act.

I think we can call hawks actors, in the sense of imitators, and it is a pity, too, for no such gladiator as the goshawk or the peregrine falcon could be found elsewhere. But there is one feathered raptor (although not classed as a raptor) that is a very good actor in his way. That is, his acting is good, but his character as an actor is detestable, for he is a veritable Iago. He plays a sneaking part to the hurt of his fellows and for his own gain. He is known to bird students as the shrike or butcher bird. There are two kinds of shrikes, but as actors they are alike.

Although on the average no larger than a robin, the shrike lives to a great extent on smaller birds. His manner of killing them is commonly fair enough. He swoops down on the weakling and piercing it with his bowie-like beak bears it to the earth, and then carrying it to the nearest thorny tree impales it upon a spike and tears it to pieces at his leisure. At other times, however, he becomes an actor to secure his game. Hiding in a thicket he begins to call in imitation of a young bird in distress. So perfect is his cry that anxious, sympathetic mothers of half a dozen varieties hasten to the rescue, and then comes a real tragedy. Selecting one that he can overpower, he pounces upon her and stabs her to death. That she may have left eggs to spoil or babies to starve does not concern him, for he is as heartless as a man with a gun.

The goldfinch, the beautiful little yellow and black fellow that traces the outline of the ocean waves in the air above the meadows, is, as most readers know, a gregarious fellow. Usually from two to six will be found together. But the other

day I saw one—a male—who was all alone, so far as I could learn. He was in a thick-topped brush, about ten feet high, when first seen, but in a moment he began soaring up in widening circles above his perch, singing in the most enthusiastic voice as he rose, and singing as he returned over his circling route once more to his perch. It was just at the beginning of the mating season, and I searched carefully for the little lady that should have called him back with a cry of "s-w-e-e-t" as he soared away, but she was nowhere around. I have seen a kingbird rise soaring above his perch and then float back with widespread wings and tail, when no mate was near. A half dozen other birds do tricks of the same kind, and when alone at that. It may seem a strained conclusion to draw from the facts, but are not those joyous fellows rehearsing?

If not, then one may see very pretty acting among the little ladies when their lovers are about. No coquette in silks could affect such entire unconsciousness of the presence of her lover as does my lady in feathers. Very demurely she hops from limb to limb, pretending to be seeking very industriously for dainties to eat, but one who watches her closely sees that it is only a make-believe search after all—she does not gather anything. She knows very well that her lover is calling her pet names as he sings, and that he is the handsomest of his race as he displays his colors and postures before her. She will act as if tired of his attentions and fly away, but she does not go as one who seeks to escape from a hawk, not at all, for the lover very easily keeps up with her while singing her praises in his loudest and most exhausting voice.

We pride ourself on the might of the human mind, and well we may, but when we wish to learn the gentle, persistent art of the lover, as portrayed in its sweetest form, let us go to the woods and thickets and take lessons of the feathered hero as he treads the waiving and swaying stage that shall later hold his house and home.

Woman's Council Table.

"CHIC."

BY RICHARD MARCH.

TRANSLATED FOR "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FROM THE GERMAN "UEBER LAND UND MEER."

THE expression "chic" has been for some time in frequent use in everyday life. One hears it and reads it everywhere. Everyone wishes to be chic, and to that end, in dress, in conduct, and style of living, patterns after some prominent person, however delectable, foolish or extravagant the fashion.

Thus in consequence of the example set by the latest and highest Londoner, in August it was chic for ladies of the aristocracy to appear on the street without gloves, which were permissible only for visits and church wear. In Vienna, on the contrary, the latest vogue was gloves on every occasion, long black ones, always embroidered with a horrid spider web containing a spider and a fly, or with a snake—heaven forbid that they ever become as live as fashion requires them to appear,—and without these fantastic gloves, nobody, in fashionable, extravagant circles, of course, was considered chic. Nor could women aspire to merit this distinctive adjective who did not take to leather belts six inches wide, who could not prefer a mouse for a pet, and who could not bring themselves to having a life-size likeness on their umbrella instead of a knob, who would use neither round handkerchiefs nor three-cornered note paper, and would not during their country residence wear a veritable cow bell on their bracelet. All of them are as far from chic as Parisian women who do not ride a wheel, as New York women who do not practice fencing.

Nothing changes more suddenly than the requirements for being chic, since they are founded on nothing that a few years ago would not be understood by the words, stylish, fine, or elegant, and by people not up to the spirit of the times in their expressions, would be so termed to-day. To be chic never implies an imitation of that deportment observed by everyone everywhere in

social life which is designated as good form, nor does chic, as many evidently think, mean simply and only in the fashion—the fashion that often excites astonishment, headshaking, and even hilarity,—regulating dress and the arrangement of all those things that pertain to external adornment, but chic is a wholly different, a personal quality.

Now this something which may lie in conduct as well as in external appearances, or in both together, a hundred years ago in France was called "*aimable*," that means lovely, or "*le bon*" also "*le bel air*," meaning a good or lovely characteristic manner; in Germany it was called for short the "*air*," until the expression chic became usual.

It may be heard everywhere in our fatherland, but the Viennese usually prefer to use the word "*schon*" derived from genre (*art*) to express what to-day is spoken of as Vienna chic or mode.

Forty years ago nobody knew anything about chic. The expression was simply unknown, and with others perpetuated by the French author "Gyp," first found a foothold in the French language about thirty years ago. Under what circumstances, nobody claims to know, and likewise over the future of this expression, as the French assert, complete darkness reigns. But the men and women on the other side of the Vosges, who devote themselves to etymology, know more of this word than they wish to tell. It comes very hard for them to acknowledge that France gets anything so marked in all the accessible world as the expression chic from the Germans and especially from the north Germans. How it came about, whether through annexation or assimilation, must remain uncertain, but it is undoubtedly assured that chic is derived from the German expression "*das Schick*" meaning aptness, cleverness, derived from "*zu etwas geschickt sein*," to be adapted to or clever in some-

thing, that is, in essential quality and manner. "Eliza takes all day to dress and yet her attire is never the least bit chic," writes a narrator, unknown by name, alas! of the seventeenth century, and thereby undoubtedly means to convey the idea that Eliza lacked the knack or aptness of dressing tastefully.

The quality of being chic may be described without further ado as the most in-born, seldom acquired knack of making oneself agreeably distinguished by dress, demeanor, mode of living.

The renowned ladies' milliner Gindreau was accustomed to say that to be chic was an in-born characteristic, and therefore, really, not to be made up, but like a beautiful picture only could be brought into relief by the frame. The same opinion was held by Worth, the woman's dressmaker, who had the fame of making the Parisians chic. This master gave voice to various expressions, but none are more remarkable than that which in 1862 he made to the wife of the poet Octave Feuillet, when she had her first gown made by him. In order to get her gown, which she had ordered only that morning, in time for a six o'clock dinner in the Tuileries, she had to remain some time in the studio of the gown-artist. "Just think," she wrote from there to a confidante, "for four hours this morning, I was on my feet, in order to have a toilette finished. . . . A man is now dressmaker for fashionable women, Mr. Worth. He is very lovely. He pays me many compliments and counts himself fortunate to be able to work for me. He says that I am well formed and chic. This word perhaps you have never heard. It means possessed of personal elegance, an elegance which has a special air."

Very cleverly but not very clearly said, unless it is added that the French include under elegance, beauty and neatness, in short, a whole list of external particulars. Like-wise as inferred in the explanation of the word chic given by the authoress "Gyp," even a plain, yes, a stupid woman may be chic if she understands how to carry herself and how to appear, in short, if she has a something that others have not. Yet a woman who is a nonentity in both body and

soul, according to this same authority, can never become chic, for insignificance precludes the possibility of a chic air. Chic is not synonymous with distinguished, but it is of such a nature that a man or woman may be very chic, without its interfering with any distinction one may have. The indispensable quality for being chic, with or without being distinguished, is a decided individuality. One must not look exactly like his neighbor; therefore copying the same model will not avail to make all the admiring neighbors look equally chic. One must be himself, himself purely and only, with all his own preferences, faults, and peculiarities. In vain the unfortunates who have not the gift of being chic, imitate persons who have, in arrangement of residence, in costume, manner or carriage of the body; they only make themselves grotesque, but chic?—never.

Nor were all those Parisians chic that back in the sixties, slavishly copied Princess Pauline Metternich, who, says an observer of the life of that time, "was chic in her corporeal figure," so truly so that one might say the word was invented specially for her.

At a time when chic implied something exotic, one woman succeeded in having adopted in Paris the East Indian chic fashion of wearing necklace and bracelets painted on the skin. In line with this, tattooing and injecting perfume under the skin became chic.

There are weighty proofs, dating from antiquity, to show what has been chic, but we will content ourselves with going back only to the year 1763. A letter of this date written by a German society woman while sojourning in Paris, says among other things: "How to live fashionably, is a thing I have learned already. About ten o'clock I rise, breakfast with my lap dog, have myself dressed before my mirror for about an hour, dine until two o'clock, go into society and rob hearts, and about midnight I go to sleep. None of my young associates understand the art of smiling so well as I; I can smile indifferently, I can smile significantly, I can smile haughtily,

and I can smile encouragingly, I can smile repellingly. This art has cost me many a forenoon's practicing before the mirror."

How very different in the year 1895! The poor Parisians, who for centuries were accustomed to take their chocolate in bed at ten or eleven o'clock in the forenoon, now, driven by a chic fashion recommended by goodness knows whom, must, if they aspire to be considered anybody, tear themselves from their downy beds at seven or eight o'clock in order to make their appearance by about ten in the Bois de Boulogne. With the stroke of twelve, it is chic to betake themselves away from this park in order either to go into company or to receive at home.

Nothing, by the way, is more chic than *matinées* with dancing. At these in private houses, a fine sideboard is found in one of the salons. At little tables the refreshments are served, according to the English-American chic, by the gentlemen of the company, who after providing for both the ladies and themselves take their places beside the ladies. Occasionally they interrupt the conversation and waltz a few times around. There are seldom lacking a piano and a pair of obliging hands. Paris is now, opinions an authority on this modern Babylon, a gathering place for fine musicians.

As little customary among us as the

matinée, is the dinner, at which only expensive beef, mutton, etc., may be served, called the "five o'clock tea." However, in Paris it is so chic that nobody who considers himself in the social swim ventures to ignore it. On the contrary, the "five o'clock tea" has become enriched by all sorts of additions, which collectively are considered chic.

As may be seen, the expression chic has attached itself to everything, even to the style of wearing the watch in the vest pocket. For a year and a day it had to be worn without a chain, in the trousers pocket, from which the money was transferred to the waistcoat pocket, but with this reserve, that it was not chic for a gentleman to carry silver or copper coins in the waistcoat pocket. Everything of the sort about him was required to be gold.

All of these fads were started, of course, by persons who, in a preëminent degree possessed the original, personal knack of being chic. For many years the prince of Wales has maintained the dignity of being the grand master of chic. The grand mistress is most popularly, in Italy at least, considered to be Queen Margherita; in France, after Madame Carnot, the most tastefully dressed woman in the land, had retired from public life, this distinction was conceded to Baroness Madeleine Desland, *née* Countess Fleury.

THE CHANGED SONG.

BY JAMES BUCKHAM.

SO you are proud of this little caged yellow-throat—
Proud that he pipes for you somebody's ditty,
Taught him instead of his own simple, mellow note—
Just a cheap ballad, grown stale in the city?

Thus—but I speak it not. Sweet bird, I pity thee!
Art has grown weak, fond of trifles as childhood.
Sing thy blind catch! So! thou dost it right wittily—
Ah! but the song that thou had'st in the wildwood!

EDITOR'S OUTLOOK.

CHRISTMAS THE CHILD'S FESTIVAL.

SOME large facts about Christmas may well arrest attention. One is that it has become everybody's festival day, in our country, and that this means a great change during the last half century. Puritan and Catholic, saint and sinner, priest and layman welcome and celebrate the day. A second fact is that though the day is a festival of social good will and affection, yet in all minds there is a degree of reverence for Him whose birth the day commemorates. The man with a creed and the man without a creed unite in respectful and reverent feeling toward the man of Nazareth. There can be no doubt that a certain relaxation in creed—which is shown in church life—has tended to bring into clearer view the manly virtues and the social power of Jesus. For the diminished intensity of doctrinal feeling has left men more free to see Jesus just as He actually was, to see His life as a symmetrical whole. Having ceased to wrangle about Him, we see with growing illumination the majestic beauty of His life and character.

Another large fact rises out of the change we have noted, and this is that Jesus is large enough to be loved by men of varying beliefs for varying reasons. The persons, for example, to whom He is only a man may admire and love His large, sweet, winsome humanity, feeling that He is fairest among the sons of men; and men who refuse to make any religious confession may see in Jesus a reformer, a renovator of our social world. He is larger in His humanity than we know and from distant and widely separated points of view draws men unto Him.

Still another fact confronts us on Christmas Day, and this is the large fitness, the essential appropriateness of our festival celebration. We come nearer to each other, we use the shows of kindness in our gifts to each other. The love that is in the world is a little larger after each Christmas

Day. "Good will toward men"—is not that the keynote of the song that was the lullaby of His manger-cradle and the melodious harmony of His life? We may differ much about Him, but on one point there will be a substantial agreement—He brought into our human life a new governing force, that is to say, he elevated to the first place the spirit of love and fellowship and good will. The heart of man ascends the throne wherever Jesus of Nazareth is known and loved. If our forms of manifesting affection by gifts be often empty, yet is there in them a large measure of this genuine and uniting good will.

Nor can we forget that on this day Jesus creeps into the world's heart as a child. We celebrate other birthdays; but this is the only one wherein the babe as a babe challenges our attention. It is as though we were asked to be kind and good, hospitable and tender, to the helplessness, the poverty, and the humiliation of a houseless infant. No other great character has fixed human attention upon the weakness and defenselessness of His infancy. Looked at from any point of view, whether of faith or of unbelief, it is a very wonderful thing that the child Jesus fills the stage on Christmas Day.

This unique attitude of the gracious memory this day celebrated has much to do with the singular hold of Jesus upon the world's affection. For after all the child is the central figure in human life, and to be tender, kind, hospitable and gently affectionate to the child is to warm the whole household of society into a spirit of mutual helpfulness and to breathe kindness into our whole life.

And surely this singular way of approaching our sense of duty has its special appropriateness and significance. "Inasmuch as ye have done it unto the least of these, ye have done it unto me," may remind us that our service of the child is just what the helpless babe of Bethlehem incites us to

render as a perfect homage and memory of Himself. Our Christmas is the child's festival; and it draws men together because there can be no discord around the cradle of the new-born babe.

GLOBE TROTTERING AND HOME SEEING.

It is popularly regarded as highly enlightening to travel and to hoard up impressions of what is seen, heard, and felt in passing from place to place. Human experience, indeed, has placed it beyond question that change of scenery, air, and social environment acts upon the imagination and the general physical energy with an effect difficult to analyze. In a majority of cases bodily health and mental refreshment result directly from travel. A tonic shock and an alterative stimulation come of the surprises incident to sudden and radical changes in what the eyes see, the ears hear, and the taste essays. A new place is a new world, a change of climate compels a new mode of life. The water we drink, the air we breathe and the food we eat are different at each point of our wanderings from what they were at home. Our mental sources and our physical organs are taken unaware, so to say, and assaulted by ever-varying forms of novelty, oddity, and beauty never before realized by us. We forget our ills, slough our discontent, and open mind and heart to elemental impressions.

Curiously enough, however, we Americans have taken it for granted that travel necessarily must be across the ocean into Europe; that change, to avail much, must be a change of continents. Fashion has decreed, speaking from London and Paris, that the star of enlightenment leads from America eastward; and the example set by wealthy people has made all other classes in our country take it for granted that a change of climate means a flight abroad.

There is nothing to be said against foreign travel, if intelligently directed; there is very much to make it desirable; but our own

country is large, its climates are many, its scenery runs the whole gamut of picturesqueness, and its local color of life changes with every place one visits, and it would seem to be the part of intelligent Americans to see America first and then consider other lands. From New York to California, from Florida to Michigan, from New Orleans to Chicago, from Seattle to St. Augustine, think of the change any one of these flights will bring, and of the panorama of surprises opened along the way! A few days of luxurious ease in a palace car and you are in a new land of wonders.

In Philadelphia the snow may be deep and the air blue with ice; but a ten hours' flight southward takes you into the shade of palmettos, where a balmy wind is blowing directly in from a tropic sea; or the heat of August may be torrid in Savannah, and you have but a day's journey to where a little fire on the hearth is an evening luxury; you may pluck oranges in a Louisiana grove to-day and to-morrow see the frozen streams of Illinois gleam between dreary winter banks.

The chief benefit of travel and change of scene and climate within one's own country is that, while the body and mind are recuperated, there is a fine influence constantly exerted upon one's character as a citizen and a patriot. To change one word in Tennyson's lines—

"He is the best cosmopolite,
Who *knows* his native land the best."

A familiar knowledge of the life lived by our fellow citizens begets that liberal sympathy which is the best guaranty of national power and permanence. Indeed, what we most need, as a people, is self-knowledge and that highest form of self-confidence which is based upon a settled and definite consciousness of our common aspirations and our aggregate strength. It would be well for us if all of us who are able to travel would turn our attention to getting a good general knowledge of our country's life, extent, resources, and needs.

CURRENT HISTORY AND OPINION.*

THE NATIONAL WOMAN'S CHRISTIAN TEMPERANCE UNION CONVENTION.



FRANCES E. WILLARD.

woman's cause. It was her hope that the Prohibition and Labor parties might agree upon a presidential candidate. Among the plans and movements she recommended were the establishment of a white ribbon college settlement, and the formation in the W. C. T. U. of a department of politics, a department of amusements, and one of work among household helpers. White Ribbon Day, she said, ought to be celebrated at the various Chautauquas and she appreciated Bishop Vincent's invitation to have such a day observed at the mother Chautauqua next season. The reports of the various heads of departments showed that much earnest work had been done during the year. The resolutions adopted by the convention were many and covered a wide range of subjects. Miss Willard was, by an overwhelming majority, elected president for the seventeenth time.

The Union Signal. (Chicago, Ill.)

As a matter of course, Prohibition and the Prohibition party were strongly indorsed. Staten Island platform, agreed to by leading reformers, was declared by the convention to be a basis on which it was believed the reform element of this country could safely unite, prohibition and woman's ballot being its two principal planks. It was stated that this indorsement was general rather than specific. A resolution earnestly asking the Prohibition party leaders to change the name to Home Protection party was unanimously adopted. A strong anti-lynching resolution was carried, and more energetic work among colored people was pledged. All the affiliated interests, including as a matter of course the Woman's Temple, were heartily indorsed. Resolutions of protest against the outrages in Armenia, and the subjugation of Madagascar, were adopted. Also, a strong resolution of sympathy with the temperance people in Harvey, Ill., and a resolution indorsing the American Temperance University, of Harriman, Tenn. One resolution declared that

* This department, together with the book, "The Growth of the American Nation," constitutes a Special C. L. S. C. Course, for the reading of which a seal is given.

THE twenty-second annual convention of the National Woman's Christian Temperance Union opened its sessions in Baltimore, Md., October 18, and concluded them October 23. About five hundred delegates were present. Miss Willard presided and delivered her address to an enthusiastic audience of over three thousand persons. She dwelt at length upon different phases of the work, saying that from no country had come greater encouragement than from France, where the leading ministers of the state do not use alcoholic liquors, and the leading literary men, such as Dumas, Zola, Daudet, Sardou, drink only mineral waters. She urged that the name of the Prohibition political party be changed to the Home Protection party. She spoke in high terms of Commissioner Roosevelt and Dr. Parkhurst. Touching upon the labor question, she expressed the opinion that if the trades unions would make sobriety a condition of membership, they might be absolute masters of England and America to-morrow. She spoke of the great help the ministers had given the

women should have a place and a vote on committees appointed by several states to consider the divorce laws, another invited fraternal relations with the Catholic and Hebrew women; a third extended the right hand of fellowship to Theodore Roosevelt and reformers in New York; also to Governor Culberson, of Texas, whose action prevented the disgrace of a prize fight within the borders of that commonwealth. The labor movement was the subject of two stalwart resolutions, and it was agreed to join the movement which seeks to establish the fourth Sunday of November as annual temperance Sunday.

The Journal. (Providence, R. I.)

The Woman's Christian Temperance Union in session at Baltimore this week has discussed almost an infinite variety of topics. Not only has temperance in the use of alcoholic beverages been considered, but there has been much talk about Sunday desecration, the evil of shooting birds, woman suffrage, an educational limit for both sexes, the tobacco habit, and lynching. No doubt these women are very earnest in their advocacy or denunciation of this, that, or the other thing, but it does seem as if they were a little intemperate in their selection of subjects for consideration. They should either limit their

discussions to the temperance question or change the name of their organization to something more appropriate.

The Inter-Ocean. (Chicago, Ill.)

The truth is, Miss Willard is the victim of a radically wrong theory of reform. She is not such a multifarious innovator as to really hold to all these notions, but her plan seems to be to form an alliance with whatever new thing comes up which is not in conflict with the temperance cause. Her intention is honest, as everybody will admit who knows her, but the plan in itself is as reprehensible as it is impolitic. Nothing but the intrinsic merits of the cause which underlies the W. C. T. U. can save the organization from being destroyed by such a policy.

Zion's Herald. (Boston, Mass.)

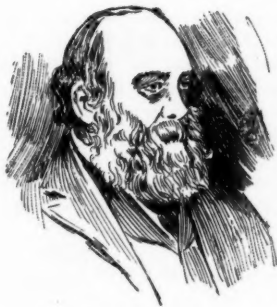
If the Woman's Christian Temperance Union propose in any true sense to incorporate these reforms, or to labor for them, they will not only

antagonize hosts of their own supporters but will endanger their own coherence and usefulness.

The Advertiser. (Boston, Mass.)

Miss Frances E. Willard deserves the love and confidence which have been evinced by her reelection for the seventeenth consecutive time as president of the Woman's Christian Temperance Union. Her career is one over which all men and women who admire sincerity, devotion, courage, sympathy, executive capacity, combined with graceful and winsome personal qualities, may well grow enthusiastic. Their enthusiasm does not in the least depend upon any agreement with her about the wisdom of prohibitory laws, or the necessity for woman's suffrage, or the soundness of her ideas on the labor problem or the coinage problem. She has given the strength of her splendid intellect and the treasures of her noble woman's heart during many long and arduous years to the task of helping humanity to become happier by becoming purer.

VENEZUELA AND THE MONROE DOCTRINE.



LORD SALISBURY.

that Great Britain claims the whole Orinoco delta and twenty-nine miles of territory to the west of that river. The United States has looked with anxiety upon what seemed like an attempt of Great Britain to acquire increased territory in America and has frequently tried to effect a settlement by arbitration. Up to this time she has not succeeded. It is reported that Secretary of State Olney has, through Ambassador Bayard, recently submitted a statement to the British Cabinet setting forth the grounds upon which the United States claims the right to recommend arbitration and the bearing of the Monroe doctrine on the affair. Lord Salisbury is said to have promised that the United States' presentation of the case shall be carefully considered and England's position fully defined.

The Sun. (New York, N. Y.)

The boundary question, in a word, lies at the root of the question of reparation for the arrest of the British policemen. The two questions are inseparable; and England has no more moral right to settle the one than the other by a high-handed use of physical force. The principle propounded by the

THE report that the British Government has sent an ultimatum to the president of Venezuela demanding reparation for the arrest last year of certain British police officers on territory claimed by both Venezuela and Great Britain, has provoked increased discussion of the Venezuelan boundary question and the bearing of the Monroe doctrine upon the dispute. This dispute arose not long after England acquired British Guiana from Holland in 1821. Abundant room was left for controversy inasmuch as Great Britain's treaty with Holland did not designate the boundaries and Venezuela, who had acquired her territory by revolt from Spain in 1810, had no treaty giving boundary specifications, and no definite boundary treaty between Spain and Holland existed. Venezuela claims the territory eastward to the Essequibo River and southward to Brazil, while late reports assert



UNITED STATES
SECRETARY OF STATE OLNEY.

late Secretary Gresham in the Bluefields affair, that the Monroe doctrine could not be construed into preventing the collection of claims against American governments, is not applicable to a case where the validity of a claim depends on the determination of a boundary controversy. If Great Britain is to act as judge in a cause to which she is a party, and to

make the arrest of her policemen at Uruan illegal by the simple process of declaring that place to be within her territory, the Uruan incident might be repeated next year in the very heart of Venezuela, nay, in the capital itself.

The Ledger. (Philadelphia, Pa.)

Great Britain would clearly violate the principles of the Monroe doctrine and invite armed interference by the United States if she should seize and take permanent possession of territory acknowledged to belong to Venezuela. But there would be no obvious violation of that doctrine if she should temporarily

seize a port of Venezuela for the purpose of collecting indemnity, nor would there be ground for interference if by so doing she should compel Venezuela to acknowledge her claim to the disputed territory. Such acknowledgment would, in fact, bar the United States from interference. Great Britain would not be extending her dominion in America, but merely taking possession of territory long since acquired. Yet this course of procedure, befogging the main issue, would leave that issue undetermined except by the pressure of a stronger power brought upon Venezuela, and the Monroe doctrine would remain unacknowledged, yet not disputed.

GENERAL WILLIAM MAHONE.



GENERAL WILLIAM MAHONE.

EX-UNITED STATES SENATOR WILLIAM MAHONE, whose death, October 8, closed a remarkable political career, was born in Virginia in 1827. He graduated from the State Military Academy in 1847, and from that time followed engineering until the war broke out. In 1861 he entered the Confederate army where he served with distinction through the war, and gained the rank of major-general. When the war closed he returned to engineering but in 1869 was attracted to politics. In that year he became the leader of the "True and Liberal Republicans of Virginia," a party accepting the reconstruction measures of the general government. This party was successful at the next elections, but upon General Mahone's retiring to look after his business interests, it fell into the hands of the regular Democrats. In 1873 General Mahone again came forward, and assumed the leadership of his party, which six years later succeeded to the control of both branches of the legislature and in 1881 seated its leader in the United States Senate. Its platform at this time favored the readjustment or partial repudiation, upon certain conditions, of the Virginia state debt. It was

upon entering the Senate that Mahone definitely separated from the Democratic party. Throughout his senatorship he stanchly supported the Republicans and from the close of his term until his death was an important leader of the Republican forces in Virginia.

(Dem.) The Index Appeal. (Petersburg, Va.)

The time has not come when his character can be dispassionately judged. That as a soldier his capacity approached genius seems to us undeniable, and his talent for the organization and leadership of men in civil life was hardly less pronounced. He attracted enthusiastic friendships and was the object of bitter animosities. To his admirers he was without fault; to his opponents he was without virtue. When the balance shall be struck by posterity he will perhaps be seen to have shared with our humanity good and evil gifts.

(Ind.) The Evening Post. (New York, N. Y.)

The death of William Mahone removes from the stage a man who fifteen years ago was one of the chief figures in national politics. He represented all that was worst in the politics of his state. While he had remained a regular Democrat, he was charged by the Republicans with having participated in the grossest election frauds. Personally unscrupulous, no sentiment of honor or state pride deterred

him from taking up repudiation as a means of securing office from a combination of the worst voters in both parties, and he went to Washington as the first man ever elected to the United States Senate on the platform of cheating the creditors of a commonwealth.

(Dem.) The Constitution. (Atlanta, Ga.)

There is a lesson in the shadow which overhung the closing years of the late General Mahone. It is as old as the human race—the lesson which condemns the social traitor. The man who deserts his family, his neighborhood, his country, can never win the esteem of the world.

(Rep.) The Globe-Democrat. (St. Louis, Mo.)

A few days before General Mahone's death a Richmond Democratic paper said his disappearance would help the Republican party in Virginia by consolidating the regular Republicans and the Mahone faction into a united party. . . . In the beginning the coalition between the Readjuster section of the Virginia Democracy and the Republicans

greatly strengthened the Republican party. But Mahone's leadership of the Republicans, which started with the beginning of the coalition, at length hampered and eventually destroyed the Republican party in Virginia. Mahone's feuds with other leaders on his side in the past half dozen years made the Republican party in Virginia a house divided against itself. His death is likely to lead to a reunion of all the Republican factions in the state.

(Rep.) *The Journal.* (Sioux City, Ia.)

General William Mahone, who recently died at Washington, was an extraordinary character and played a unique part. He was an aristocrat, wealthy, and born to the privileges of the first families of Virginia. He threw all his being into the secession movement. He achieved high distinction as a soldier in the Confederate cause. After the war was over, General Mahone applied his great energies to busi-

ness, and he became foremost and successful in the railroad, mining, and other enterprises which have wrought so great changes in Virginia. He won large fortune. But the time came when his independent spirit could not brook the tyranny of party, and in the turmoil which accompanied a great political overturning he was elected to the United States Senate, in part by the aid of Republican votes. He was still considered a Democrat, and he had at least never definitely departed from the party. Tremendous pressure was put on General Mahone to remain with the Democratic party. He saw it to be his duty to vote against the Democratic party. A fierce storm broke over his head. He was anathematized from one end of the South to the other. He encountered social ostracism. Misfortunes later crowded upon him. He lost his wealth, and for several years he has lived in comparative obscurity.

STATE LAWS AGAINST PRIZE FIGHTING AND THE CORBETT-FITZSIMMONS CASE.



GOVERNOR CULBERSON, OF TEXAS.

The Gazette. (Fort Worth, Tex.)

It has required no little courage on the part of Governor Culberson to take the position he has. The scene of the controversy is his own home, and many of those most largely interested are his personal friends. That he has not permitted this to swerve him from his first position, taken early in the conflict, is greatly to his credit, as Governor for the whole people, and as the representative of a great state.

The Republic. (St. Louis, Mo.)

Governor Culberson got an instant response from the Texas legislature. Both houses, by acting almost unanimously on the measure, have joined the governor in the determination that no loudly advertised prize fight shall take place in Texas. The action of the legislature might have been foreseen.

I-Dec

ANOTHER blow has been dealt at prize fighting. Corbett and Fitzsimmons appear to be seeking in vain for a place in the United States where they may indulge in a "prize contest." They first agreed upon Dallas, Texas, as the place for the contest, as Texas was one of the few states without a law against prize fighting. Governor Culberson's prompt action in calling a special session of the state legislature and securing the passage of a prohibitory law defeated their plans. Arkansas was then selected, but Governor Clarke's vigorous measures made the encounter impossible there and at latest reports it had not taken place. Governor Brown of Kentucky, and Governor Clough of Minnesota have been active in preventing similar contests within their borders. Governor Brown declared recently, in regard to a fight which was to come off at Louisville, that if necessary he would call out the entire Louisville Legion to stop the exhibition. He says that prize fighting is a disgrace to our civilization and an insult to the Christian and decent sentiment of the age.

It is altogether likely that most of the members would be glad to see the fight and that few of them would deny the desire. But when the issue of leaving prize fights under the sanction of the law is presented, they feel, as citizens, that the state of Texas cannot be behind the other states. Possibly that double view is not the perfection of logic. It is, however, the attitude of nine respectable men out of ten in Texas and elsewhere. The man would go to witness a contest between two great boxers. The citizen cannot approve the business of prize fighting.

The Recorder. (New York, N. Y.)

This resolute action of the executive of Texas and of the legislative department of its government will be the end of prize fighting in the United States. It should have gone long ago. Exhibitions of this kind are a disgrace to our civilization.

THE STATE ELECTIONS.

THE elections held on Tuesday, November 6, in fourteen states resulted in a Republican landslide. The Republican majorities in New York, Massachusetts, Ohio, Iowa, and Pennsylvania were abnormally large. The Democratic stronghold in the South was broken, two former Democratic states, Kentucky and Maryland, electing Republican governors by substantial majorities, while New Jersey, the one northern state which adhered to the Democracy throughout the Civil War down to the present election, also elected a Republican governor by a large majority. By reason of gains in the legislatures of New York, Ohio and Maryland, the Republicans will apparently be able to control three new seats in the United States Senate, while their representation in this federal body is likely to be further increased by two senators from Utah. The complexion of the Kentucky legislature makes the political character of Senator Blackburn's successor uncertain. Generally, the results are remarkable, since it was an "off year" election, there being no agitation of national issues carried on simultaneously in the several states.

In Massachusetts the Republican ticket, headed by Governor Greenhalge, the candidate for reelection, was successful, the majority being about 65,000. The proposition to grant municipal suffrage to the women of Massachusetts was defeated. The New York state Republican ticket, including candidates for secretary of state and minor offices, was elected by majorities approaching 100,000. The legislature is largely Republican, and by gains in the state senate the election of a Republican successor to Senator Hill, Democrat, is in prospect. In New York City and County the "personal liberty" issue materially influenced the vote. The nature of the campaign and its issues made the election one of significance, especially as it related to the Tammany Democrats and the observance of the Christian Sabbath. The Tammany county ticket was elected over that of the Fusionists. It included candidates for county clerk, register, justices of the Supreme Court, general sessions judges, and city court justices. The election in Pennsylvania was for a state treasurer and judges of the new superior court, the Republican ticket being elected by upwards of 170,000, an increased majority for an "off year." In Ohio the Republican state ticket, headed by General A. S. Bushnell for governor, was elected by a majority exceeding 100,000. The election determines definitely that the next legislature will be overwhelmingly Republican, thus insuring the election of a Republican United States senator to succeed Senator Brice, Democrat. The United States senatorship was made an issue of the state campaign, Ex-Governor J. B. Foraker being the Republican candidate, he having previously received the endorsement of the state convention. It is likely therefore that Senator John Sherman will shortly have a Republican colleague, in which case it will be the first time since 1869 that two Republicans have represented Ohio in the United States Senate at the same time. New Jersey elected a Republican governor by about 25,000 majority. The Republicans will also have a large majority in the state legislature. Maryland went Republican, a governor and state ticket having been elected, together with members of the legislature, which will be largely Republican and elect a successor to United States Senator Gibson, Democrat. The Republican state ticket had a majority of about 18,000. Kentucky followed New Jersey and Maryland by electing a Republican governor, his majority approaching 10,000. The Republicans made large gains in their representation in the legislature, which is likely to be a tie on joint ballot between the Republicans and Democrats, a few Populists holding the balance of power. In Mississippi the Democratic state ticket, including governor, was elected by about the usual majorities. The Virginia election was for members of the state legislature, in which the normal Democratic majority will be maintained. The complete Republican state ticket in Iowa was elected by a majority of about 80,000, and the Republicans will have a large majority in the state legislature. The election in Nebraska was for a judge of the Supreme Court, the Republican candidate being elected and the Republican majority being perceptibly increased, apparently at the expense of the Populist vote. Utah voted in favor of the adoption of the new constitution preparatory to the admission of the territory to statehood. By the terms of this constitution women have equal suffrage rights with men, and eight members constitute a jury instead of twelve—certainly an innovation in judicial methods. In addition, the Republican candidates for governor and other state offices were elected, the Republicans securing a majority, also, in the legislature, which will elect two United States senators. The Democrats elected one congressman from the state, as well as a few minor officers. In Kansas the election was for a chief justice of the Supreme Court, and the Republican candidate was successful by a large majority.

(*Dem.*) *New York Times.* (*New York, N. Y.*)

More powerful, so far as national questions were considered, than all other influences was the melancholy and disgraceful breakdown of the party in the United States Senate through the treason of Gor-

man and Brice and their immediate followers. Notwithstanding this misfortune, the principles of the party remain. It is still the representative of the policy of commercial and industrial emancipation. It is still the only party that has given the country

an executive absolutely sound and fearless in the maintenance of the national faith in the management of the finances and the currency.

(*Rep.*) *New York Tribune.* (*New York, N. Y.*)

It is now a solid North and West, instead of a solid South, with all of the border states and some of the southern states trembling in the balance and inclining toward Republicanism. Either last year or this the Republicans have carried every state north of the 35th parallel but one, and the margin in that was very narrow. There are to-day only nine states to be reckoned safely Democratic, or exactly one in five of the whole Union—since Utah has practically become the forty-fifth state. Those are Virginia, South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, Arkansas, and Texas. Six others are debatable ground—Delaware, Maryland, North Carolina, Kentucky, Tennessee, and Missouri—with the chances decidedly in favor of the Republicans in half of them. The other thirty, or exactly two-thirds of the whole, ought steadfastly to be kept in the Republican column.

In the electoral college there will be next year 447 votes, and 224 will, therefore, be necessary to a choice. The nine safely Democratic states which we have named will have 89 of those votes, and the six border states 64 more. Should they carry all the latter, therefore, the Democrats would have only 153 votes, or 71 less than a majority. The thirty Republican states, on the other hand, will have 294 votes, or 70 more than are necessary for a clear majority. It may also be of interest to observe that in the Senate of 1897 there will be 90 members, of whom the Republicans now seem certain of 48, a clear majority of six over Democrats and Populists combined.

(*Dem.*) *Philadelphia Record.* (*Pa.*)

The Republican victories of this year, where they have not been the outcome of revolt against a demoralizing Democratic leadership, have been the fruits of apathetic discouragement. The Democrats have simply lain down and let their political opponents walk over them. For this state of things the remedy is reorganization and a leadership that will have both head and heart in it. The movement in this direction cannot begin a day too soon.

(*Rep.*) *New York Press.* (*N. Y.*)

The people have given a new declaration against the Democratic party and all it means. They have condemned it as a party which is without capacity for government, as a party that does not appreciate the spirit of the people, and is incapable of responding to their views and wishes.

(*Dem.*) *The Sun.* (*New York, N. Y.*)

If any one wants an answer to the question why the Democratic colors have thus been trailed in the dust, he can say in brief that it is because Cleveland by his home and foreign politics, by the repudiation

of the Democratic platform and his adoption of the Populistic platform, by his shifty pretence of selling bonds to maintain the gold reserve when it was to pay federal expenses unprovided for, by his attempted overreaching of Congress and secret restoration of the Hawaiian monarchy, by his attitude toward foreign insolence, by his general contempt for the idea of party government, and his effort to get himself nominated for a third term, has trampled on the rules, the pride, the sentiment, and the flag of the United States.

(*Dem.*) *Richmond Dispatch.* (*Va.*)

The Democrats are famous for showing their fighting qualities in the direst extremities. It is peril that brings out our pluck, adversity that makes us unanimous.

(*Rep.*) *Baltimore American.* (*Md.*)

Mr. Cleveland is now the logical candidate of his party, barring the slight obstacle of the precedent against third terms established by the first president and religiously adhered to ever since.

(*Dem.*) *Trenton True American.* (*N. J.*)

The Democratic defeat in New Jersey is unmarred by any local successes, which tend to mislead the judgment. The licking is so thorough that nature provides a temporary paralysis which dulls the pain.

(*Dem.*) *New York World.* (*N. Y.*)

The state of Kentucky has been singularly free from the influence of the boss in politics and the elections of that state represent the expression of the popular will. There is no reason for Kentucky going Republican this year, for the first time in its history, except the mistake made by the leaders in attempting to meet the difficulty of the silver question by nominating an unsound candidate on a sound platform. The result confirms the opinion already expressed by the *World* that "the American people do not like straddling or double dealing upon an issue involving the credit of the nation and the stability of the currency."

(*Rep.*) *Boston Journal.* (*Mass.*)

Public sentiment in Massachusetts has not yet been won over to woman suffrage. That is the emphatic lesson of yesterday's vote on the municipal suffrage proposition. There is abundant proof in the figures of the returns that the great majority of Massachusetts women do not desire the ballot, and that the majority of men do not think it expedient to make that extension of the franchise. It was the honest purpose of the legislature, when it decided to submit this vexed question to the people, to secure the fullest and fairest expression of opinion possible. If the women of the state, generally, wished the privilege of exercising the franchise in municipal affairs, they had the opportunity to register and to record their desire at the polls for the instruction of the lawmakers. If the men of the state

wished that the ballot should be given to women, they could do the same. The defeat of the proposition and the general apathy which the women themselves have manifested on the subject is plain evidence that the granting of municipal suffrage to women would be contrary to the popular will. The general court must so accept it, and, for a term of years at least, it would seem as if the annual woman suffrage campaign before the legislature would have to be suspended.

(*Dem.*) *Jacksonville Times-Union*. (*Fla.*)

And the cause can be expressed in one word—disorganization. The party is not united. In 1892 it championed the cause of tariff reform and won. What was it advocating yesterday? By a tacit consent the tariff is no longer an issue. The present tariff is giving satisfaction, and it is not certain that any party desired to speedily change it. The Democratic party stands for local self-government, but this was not made a prominent issue in

any of the states. On the currency question it stands for gold monometallism in the East, for free silver in Mississippi and the extreme West, and for a self-contradictory declaration in Ohio, Kentucky, Iowa, and other states. The Democratic party needs to clearly define its principles and fight for them.

(*Rep.*) *Kansas City Journal*. (*Mo.*)

The truth is, the election is a condemnation of Cleveland's policy—out and out—and particularly his bold, unscrupulous and illegal alliance with the gold brokers of New York and London, and it is only doing the Republican party harm to say anything contrary. The election shows that such policy does not change public sentiment. The terrible destruction of values and the bankruptcy following was on the country a year before Congress touched the tariff—and the people of the country know and remember the fact. The elections were not a half-and-half affair, but an overwhelming condemnation of the policy of the administration now in office.

ANOTHER CABINET CRISIS IN FRANCE.

THE Ribot ministry resigned October 28, and a few days later President Faure delegated to M. Bourgeois the task of forming a new cabinet, which resulted as follows: Foreign Affairs, M. Berthelot; War, M. Cavaignac; Marine, M. Lockroy; Finance, M. Doumer; Justice, M. Richard; Colonies, M. Leveillé; Public Instruction, M. Combes; Public Works, M. Guyot-Dessaigne; Commerce, M. Mesureur; Agriculture, M. Viger. M. Bourgeois, the premier, took the portfolio of the Interior. The immediate cause of the downfall of Ribot's ministry was the Chamber's disapproval of Ribot's treatment of the south of France railroad scandals. Several years ago, certain railroads in southern France obtained from the government a large appropriation and an annual subsidy. Many of the deputies now claim that corruption of the press and of officials has been revealed, and demand a more thorough investigation than was made by Ribot. The present ministry is Conservative-Radical in politics and its policy is said to be to thoroughly investigate the railroad scandals, modify the Madagascar treaty, create a colonial army, introduce an income tax, and support a proposal for arbitration in the case of the Carmaux glass workers' strike. This is the thirty-fifth change of cabinet since 1871, and as the Radical party cannot count upon a majority in the Chamber of Deputies, the present cabinet may have as brief a term in office as its predecessors.

The Record. (*Philadelphia, Pa.*)

The weakness of the Bourgeois cabinet lies in the fact that there is no solid majority in the Chamber of Deputies to rally in support of its policy. Yet this remark could be applied with equal truth to any possible ministerial combination in France. The instability of legislative majorities has led to much agitation among the influential French leaders in favor of "concentration"; but hitherto the little dictators of small political groups have steadfastly refused to concentrate, lest their patronage and factitious importance might be diminished. The Opportunists still constitute the largest group in the French Chamber, and that they will extend more than lukewarm support to a Radical cabinet is doubtful. The Bourgeois ministry will probably be short-lived.

The Figaro. (*Paris, France.*)

With MM. Cavaignac directing the army, Lockroy the navy, and Berthelot the diplomacy of France, there is more than enough to alarm those to whom

defense of the nation and our position in Europe are matters of concern.

Paris Correspondent of the Tribune.

(*New York, N. Y.*)

Forecasts are always hazardous in French politics. Apparently the new ministry will not last long; especially if it modifies the Madagascar treaty, introduces a radical measure of army reform, and proposes income taxation on socialist lines; but the best calculations are of little value when an omnipotent Parliament is swayed by caprices. The Radicals for once are in the saddle and may ride well. They are men who know what they want and never lost sight of their goal. The Chambers may support them for the sake of having a definite policy after a long period of ministerial vacillation.

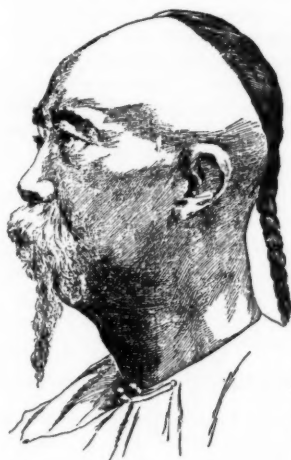
The Inquirer. (*Philadelphia, Pa.*)

Speaking about the new French ministry's policy: if the truth were told it would probably be that the aforesaid policy is—to hold office as long as possible.

RELATIONS OF RUSSIA AND CHINA.

THE Russian fleet has removed from Vladivostock to Port Arthur, and it is rumored that a treaty has been formed between Russia and China giving the former the right of anchorage in Port Arthur and the right of railway connection with the Trans-Siberian line. Ever since Russia compelled Japan to give back to China the Liao Tung peninsula and became security for China's war indemnity, raised in France, she has been suspected of a design to gain at least a winter port in Manchuria, if not the whole of northern China. The recent move confirms these suspicions. Whether or not England will quietly allow Russia to carry out her plans remains to be seen. It is commonly believed that she will not, and that a great war is imminent.

The World. (New York, N. Y.)



LI HUNG CHANG.

An understanding with China is in line with Russia's policy of developing south-east Siberia by the Trans-Siberian Railway. It is said that in southern Siberia, within reach of the Pacific, there are vast tracts of the best wheat land in the world. These lands are in about the same latitude as northern

Dakota and Manitoba, and their wheat would probably be of the same quality as that produced in that region. It is said to be Russia's intention to colonize these lands under homestead laws similar to those by which western America was developed, and thus to become a great power on the Pacific coast of Asia. . . . Surplus wheat produced in southeastern Siberia could only find a market in Asia at present, but after the trans-isthmian route between the two Americas is opened it will be in reach of the demand from European markets, and that will mean a great deal to the United States.

The Picayune. (New Orleans, La.)

Should Russia insist in holding China to the terms of the treaty, the general opinion is that there will be nothing left for England but active intervention, first by diplomatic representation, backed up by a formidable naval demonstration in Chinese waters, and, finally, by force of arms, should the milder measures fail. The very nature of things would compel Japan to take the initiative in preventing Russia from taking possession of Port Arthur and the Liao Tung peninsula; but it is now evident

that the power of Great Britain would be behind Japan did it become evident that Russia proposed to supplant Japan in the possession of Manchuria. Another feature of the situation which must necessarily enter into all calculations is the practical certainty that France would be found actively backing Russia, both with moral and material support, should hostilities break out. A war in the far East would, therefore, be between France and Russia on the one side, and England and Japan on the other.

The Sun. (New York, N. Y.)

Unquestionably the concessions now reported have been simply earned, nor, in spite of the frantic and silly protests of certain British newspapers, is there any doubt that Nicholas II. is morally justified in seeking for his vast Asiatic possessions a means of access during winter to the sea. Even one London journal, the *Spectator*, has had the decency to admit that Englishmen ought to be ashamed of their desire to cut off Russia from the great highway of nations. Inasmuch as at the time of the evacuation of Port Hamilton they bound Russia by an agreement not to occupy Port Lazareff or any Korean harbor, they have only themselves to blame if the Czar takes the opportunity of gaining a naval station on the Liao Tung peninsula. Should England now try to play her familiar rôle of dog in the manger, and prevent by force the execution of the arrangement said to have been made with relation to Port Arthur, she will have to fight single-handed against Russia and France. Nothing

could be more ridiculous than the assertion of the London *Globe* that in such a wrong-headed contest England would be supported by the United States, Germany, and Japan.



PRINCE LOBANOFF, RUSSIAN PREMIER.

MORMONS AND POLITICS.

ATTENTION has again been called to Utah politics from the fact that the territory is to become a state, with a governor and several other officials who are members of the "Church of Jesus Christ, or Latter Day Saints," and the additional fact that a few weeks before election two of the Democratic candidates were censured by the Mormon Church for accepting their nominations without the consent of the presidency of the church. By many this incident is looked upon as indicating a determination on the part of the Mormon Church to control politics, while Wilford Woodruff, the church's first president, asserts that the rebuke was administered because the two men, as members of the Mormon priesthood, had no right to engage in anything that would take them away from their church duties for any length of time, without permission from the presidency.

The Outlook. (New York, N. Y.)

Congress is under obligations to consider whether it is prepared to grant a full and equal share in the political privileges of this nation to a state which, under a system of universal suffrage, is certain to be for many years to come practically under the control of a hierarchy which has shown itself by its past history to be as unscrupulous and as despotic as any hierarchy which the world has ever seen.

(Rep.) *The Tribune.* (Salt Lake City, Utah.)

If the disapproval which it is said the acts of Mr. Thatcher and Mr. Roberts received at the priesthood meeting was purely because they were Mormons, and as such were bound to obey, not only in

church, but in political affairs, then the matter should be brought straight before this people, and we should have an understanding before the protection of statehood is drawn around this territory. If the objection was on other grounds, that the men had consecrated their lives and their time to a certain duty, for a consideration, then the matter will have to be judged from a business standpoint merely, because business in a church is precisely like business in a factory or a store, and all engaged in it are bound to keep their obligations. It is a clear case, however, that high officers of the church can no more be mixing in politics in Utah without heartburnings, than they could in any other place.

ANNUAL REPORT OF THE UNITED STATES COMMISSIONER OF LABOR.

THE tenth annual report of Col. Carroll D. Wright, United States Commissioner of Labor, deals with the strikes and lockouts occurring between 1881 and July 1894. During this period 14,930 strikes and lockouts have taken place, involving 3,714,406 workmen and 69,167 establishments. In about 45 per cent of the cases they have been entirely successful and in about 12 per cent partially so. The loss in wages has been about \$190,493,000, not including about \$12,235,000 paid out by labor organizations to aid strikes, and the loss to employers about \$94,826,000. The building trades have been most affected; coal and coke, tobacco, clothing, food preparations, and metal follow in the order named. New York takes the lead in the number of such disturbances, Illinois comes second, and Pennsylvania third.

The Courier-Journal. (Louisville, Ky.)

There can be no doubt that the condition of workingmen has in some respects been ameliorated through the influence of these demands; but this has been attained at extravagant cost. The fact that while strikes have increased in number, the percentage of victories won by the labor element seems to have declined, shows how ill-directed is such warfare. The same object might have been attained in far greater degree by arbitration.

The Constitution. (Atlanta, Ga.)

The suffering, crime, and loss of life caused by the strikes cannot of course be ascertained and stated, but it is known that the sum total was appalling. Intelligent wage-workers will soon come to the conclusion that almost anything is better than a strike. Half a loaf is better than none, and in hard times a workman cannot do a more foolish thing than to quit work. Wages will fluctuate according

to the state of the labor market and the trade laws of supply and demand. Strikes will not secure prosperous conditions, nor stimulate industry and commerce, nor make employers more generous. Whether profitable or not, they are generally unwise and should be discouraged by all intelligent toilers.

The Telegraph. (Philadelphia, Pa.)

Strikes are labor's wars, and labor is not only most frequently defeated, but it is obliged to suffer the chief part of the physical distress of the war, and also to pay the greater part of the cost of it. There are times when even labor wars must needs come; but the histories of all contests of force between employees and employers show that there have been but few of them which could not have been prevented by arbitration. It is almost the rule that strikes are eventually settled by arbitration; either by that or the surrender of the strikers. But the offices of conciliation and peace are not often employed until the strikers begin to perceive that

they cannot succeed; then, however, their losses have been incurred, and they themselves are not in a position to deal with their employers on equal terms, which they would have been before the strike began. If Commissioner Wright's figures are not absolutely devoid of truth, strikes and lockouts do not pay; and what else these statistics should prove to wage-earners and employers is that an ounce of preventive arbitration is worth a pound of arbitration when the use of force has proved ineffective. The lesson taught by Commissioner Wright's figures is that arbitration should precede the strike, not the strike arbitration.

The Transcript. (Boston, Mass.)

It will be observed that those who had the least to lose lost the most, for the wage-earner's lost days count more heavily—for the reason that they are apt to count finally—than the capitalist's lost business, which he may regain. These figures are potent arguments for the extension of the arbitration idea.

The Recorder. (New York, N. Y.)

I do not believe it is true, except in a very narrow

and misleading sense, that the strikers in any of the great quarrels of labor and capital are the heaviest losers. It is constantly overlooked that the wages of labor are, for the most part, no sooner collected than they are redistributed among tradesmen in payment for food and family supplies. When they are cut off by a strike, the employees do not lose nearly as much as the community. They go on living somehow, but they cannot and do not pay their bills. Reckoning up all their lost wages and calling it all their loss is a false way of looking at it. It is not all their loss. A large part of it falls upon the small shopkeepers, another part of it falls upon landlords who fail to get their rents, and another part of it falls upon charitable people who subscribe to relief funds. In the last analysis the accumulated capital of the country as a whole is drawn upon to make good the losses of all great strikes. These truths are worth thinking about, for they point to the practical conclusions that it is impossible to separate with distinctness the losses of capital from those of labor in these industrial conflicts.

THE SITUATION IN CUBA.



SEÑOR SALVADOR CISNEROS.

The Picayune. (New Orleans, La.)

The meeting at Chicago, a few weeks ago, in the interest of securing the recognition of the belligerency of the Cuban insurgents by Congress, has attracted the attention of the whole country, and preparations are making for the holding of similar meetings in all the large centers of population throughout the United States. The sympathy felt for the Cuban patriots on the part of the American people is almost universal, and although conservative persons are not disposed to advocate any course on the part of the government which would be contrary to accepted international usage, there is a strong demand that Congress should do what it is plainly in its power to do, namely, accord the insurgents belligerent rights. The desire to see the Cubans succeed in securing their independence does not im-

ply the least animosity or ill-will toward Spain. The recognition of the belligerency of the Cubans would place the United States in the position of a strict neutrality towards both the insurgents and the Spanish government.

There is a project on foot to call a mass meeting in New Orleans in order to petition Congress to recognize the belligerency of the Cubans, and to pass resolutions of sympathy of much the same general character as those adopted by the Chicago meeting. Such a movement is worthy of every success, and so long as denunciation of Spain and demands for impossible action on the part of the United States government are avoided, the proposed meeting can be productive only of the best results. Owing to the proximity of the island of Cuba to New Orleans, and the trade relations between it and this city, our

people feel a strong sympathy for the Cubans in their struggle for independence, and they unquestionably favor every right and proper movement in their behalf; consequently the proposed mass meeting is likely to be well attended.

The Courier-Journal. (Louisville, Ky.)

Had the insurgents been able to fairly establish any sort of government in the island, there would have been such a demand for its recognition as a belligerent that no administration could have afforded to ignore it.

Sympathy with the Cubans is confined to no political party, though some journals, with the indiscriminate recklessness of partisans, have been trying to construe the government's determination to respect the neutral laws into hostility to the cause of the revolutionists. This is a cheap play to make political capital and is so regarded by every one who takes the trouble to think.

The Times. (Philadelphia, Pa.)

It is needless to disguise that the people of this country would be pleased to see Spain abandon Cuba. There has not been a president from Monroe to Cleveland, who would not have jumped at any real opportunity either to secure the independence of the island or to acquire it for the United States. But since the abolition of slavery its forcible acquisition has not been seriously considered and it is clear that in the development of Cuban independence we must await events. Meanwhile the friction over the functions of our consul general at Havana is not without possible importance. Though nominally these functions are only commercial, the situation requires that he shall have some quasi-diplomatic functions as well, and the denial of these by Spain may require some fresh provision for the protection of American interests in Cuba.

THE FRENCH IN MADAGASCAR.

SEPTEMBER 30 the French took undisputed possession of Antananarivo, the capital of Madagascar. General Duchesne, the leader of the invading force, is the hero of the hour in Paris. This expedition was undertaken last April to make good the rights of France obtained in 1885 by a treaty establishing a French protectorate over the island. The most formidable enemy encountered by the army on its march was the terrible swamp fever which rendered half of the fifteen thousand men under General Duchesne unfit for service. The success of the undertaking virtually adds to the French possessions an island greater in area than France itself and with a vast interior highland region habitable for Europeans.

Whitehall Review. (London, Eng.)

We are quite content that the tricolor should float in Madagascar and that France should accept responsibility for the administration of the island, while Great Britain reaps, in a commercial point of view, the benefits of its opening up and development. Only let our French friends understand that

poleon is known to have regarded the acquisition of the island as a stepping stone to that conquest of India which, like Alexander the Great, he once contemplated but never accomplished. We are now bound to face both the strategic and the commercial results of a French annexation—which will now be simply a question of time.

Zion's Herald. (Boston, Mass.)

The joy in France is great at this acquisition of one of the largest and richest islands on the globe—nearly four times in area that of England and Wales. By its conquest the Ribot ministry is rescued from downfall, and the project of forming a "colonial" army, acclimated to the tropics and made up largely of native troops, is receiving attention. But no one seems to notice that the French are totally unjustified in this spoliation and oppression of a feeble nation.



QUEEN OF MADAGASCAR.

we have treaty rights in Madagascar, and they are neither nullified nor abrogated by General Duchesne's occupation of the capital.

The Morning Advertiser. (Paris, France.)

From there French cruisers could swoop down upon British argosies laden with the wealth of the Indies, just as in the old days British fleets lay in wait for rich Spanish galleons on their way home, heavy with ingots of gold and bars of silver. . . . The Great Na-



GENERAL DUCHESNE.

CROP ESTIMATES.

DURING the last few years there seems to have been a steady increase in the amount of products resulting from agriculture, while at the same time in many cases there has been a gradual decrease in their market value. A striking example of this is found in the estimates given concerning cotton. The average price per pound for this season is 5.92 cents, a decrease of 1.58 cents from the price for last season, while the increase in production was over 2,000,000 bales. During the last year, 865,872 more bales were marketed than in 1891-92, but the receipts show a decrease of \$41,789,182. The following statements from the New York *Financial and Commercial Chronicle* show the combined aggregate of the crops in wheat, corn, and oats for five years:

| Total Production | CROPS OF WHEAT, CORN, AND OATS | | | | |
|------------------|--------------------------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|
| | 1895* | 1894 | 1893 | 1892 | 1891 |
| | Bushels | Bushels | Bushels | Bushels | Bushels |
| Corn..... | 2,372,254,000 | 1,212,779,052 | 1,619,456,131 | 1,628,464,000 | 2,060,154,000 |
| Wheat..... | 423,475,000 | 460,267,416 | 396,131,725 | 515,949,000 | 611,780,000 |
| Oats..... | 825,494,000 | 662,036,928 | 638,854,850 | 661,035,000 | 738,394,000 |
| Total..... | 3,621,223,000 | 2,335,074,396 | 2,654,482,706 | 2,805,448,000 | 3,410,328,000 |

* Indicated.

It is only necessary to say with reference to the foregoing that it indicates a total for the combined crops 1,300 million bushels larger than for 1894, 1,000 millions larger than for 1893, 800 millions larger than for 1892 and even 200 million bushels larger than the extraordinary total for 1891. Of the effects of such excellent harvests upon the future of business and the traffic and earnings of our transportation lines, we need not speak. The figures tell their own story.

THE PROTESTANT EPISCOPAL CONVENTION.

THE triennial convention of the Protestant Episcopal Church, which met in Minneapolis from October 2 to 22 was a most interesting gathering. Much time was spent in considering the changes in the constitution and canons, proposed by a commission of revision appointed in 1892. Besides many changes relating to details of government, two striking alterations were proposed, viz., the formation of provinces, composed of five or more dioceses, over which archbishops or primates should preside, and the conferring of the title of primate or head of the American church upon the presiding bishop of the House of Bishops. These changes, having been adopted by the bishops but not by the deputies, were finally referred back to the commission to await action in 1898. A missionary spirit was manifested throughout the gathering, showing itself in the missionary meetings, the largest and most enthusiastic sessions of the convention. In considering the question of Christian unity, Bishop Doane said: "The position of the church is outlined in the Chicago-Lambeth platform, which covers four points; substantially, the recognition of the Holy Scriptures as the Word of God, the acceptance of the Nicene Creed, the administration of the sacrament in the elements and with the words of our Lord's institution, and the historic episcopate adapted to the needs of the times." However Dr. Huntington's proposition that bishops be authorized to take in charge congregations of other Christians, providing they conform to the discipline and doctrines of the church, was defeated. Resolutions of greeting and fraternal good will sent to the Northern Minnesota Conference of the Methodist Church, then in session in Minneapolis, show that a spirit of liberality is gaining ground in this conservative denomination.

The Tribune. (New York, N. Y.)

And thus ends for the time the well-meant attempt to bring about an organic unity of Christendom on the basis of the Lambeth "quadrilateral." In Dr. Huntington's resolution the four points of the "quadrilateral" were carefully safeguarded; and yet it was defeated because it did not make the use of the prayer book obligatory, though that condition is not mentioned in the "quadrilateral," showing that the church does not regard the Lambeth basis of unity as stringent enough. The church finds itself

unable to make any concessions, and so long as that is the case, other Christian bodies have no desire to unite with it.

The Observer. (New York, N. Y.)

The Christian body that really desires Christian unity for the sake of Christ and His church will show more anxiety to find reasons to unite with some other body than to have other bodies unite with it. Bishop Cox's hint that the Episcopal Church might yet see the propriety of seeking union with the Moravians by admission to that denomina-

tion suggests the way to show a genuine desire in the Episcopal Church for reunion that does not merely mean Episcopal absorption.

The Christian Intelligencer. (New York, N. Y.)

A considerable portion of the delegates evidently favor a primate in every state and a primate over the entire American church. The interval between these higher dignitaries and the existing bishops this party would probably wish to fill up with such official personages as are found in the Church of England. That such an organization would be offensive to the people of a republic is by no means certain. There are many men and women among us to whom such a hierarchy would be very attractive. That it has

no warrant in the New Testament is perfectly evident.

The Journal and Messenger. (Cincinnati, O.)

There never can be an American church. There is an English church because it is a state church. So the Roman Catholic Church is the French church and the Spanish church. But there is nothing more fixed in our government than the separation of church and state. Baptists would not accept the position of state church were it offered them, since we believe in religious liberty, in the right of every man to worship God in his own way. With us, all Christian churches must be equal before the law.

THE UNITARIAN NATIONAL CONFERENCE.

THE Unitarian movement in the United States began about the first of the nineteenth century under the leadership of Dr. Channing. In 1825 the American Unitarian Association was formed, and about thirty years ago under the name of the "National Conference of Unitarian and Other Christian Churches" a number of ministerial and lay delegates from various congregations and religious and benevolent societies assembled to discuss and consult concerning matters of practical religious interest. The sixteenth biennial meeting of this conference opened in Washington, October 22, 1895. Mr. Dorman B. Eaton, of New York, presided in the absence of the president, Senator Hoar of Massachusetts, who was reelected to that office. About two thousand delegates were present, a large number being ladies.

The Independent. (New York, N. Y.)

The opening address, by the Rev. George Batchelor, surveyed the history of the organization which thirty years ago was a private corporation. He enumerated the three sources of supply as the unsectarian Divinity School at Harvard, the Unitarian Theological School at Meadville, and the ministry of other denominations. Referring to this last he said that the change in other churches takes effect with the ministry before it does with the laity, and the result is an increasing demand for admission to work under Unitarian auspices. With regard to the Universalists, he held that the differences between the two bodies must probably continue to exist for generations to come, and declared that Unitarians are not agnostics, but believers in the doctrine that righteousness is salvation, and that all the law is summed up in love to God and love to man.

On the second day there was an address on the subject of miracles, by the venerable Dr. Furness, of Philadelphia, ninety-three years of age, and the oldest living graduate of Harvard University. He declared that miracles are but violations of natural laws, out of harmony with all known or probable truths and believed in by no one of education. In the evening an address was given by the Rev. Charles C. Everett, dean of Harvard Theological School, on the definition adopted by the last National Conference. He affirmed that Unitarians who accept part or all of the New Testament stories of the miraculous see in them manifestations of higher laws instead of a breaking through of all laws.

Unitarians like to speak of God as the Father revealing himself in the order of beauty of the universe, and believe that in the future life there will open to every soul the highest possibilities for which it is fitted.

Among other topics that were discussed was that of Christian unity. Carroll D. Wright reported a revision of the resolutions previously proposed in the form of the following, which were finally adopted:

"Resolved, That this church accepts the religion of Jesus, holding, in accordance with his teaching, that practical religion is summed up in love to God and love to man; and we cordially invite to our working fellowship any who, while differing from us in belief, are in general sympathy with our spirit and our practice.

"Resolved, That the National Council give the above declaration the widest possible publicity, as a sufficient basis not only for 'Christian unity,' but also for the religious unity of the world."

On the topic of temperance there was considerable discussion, participated in by the Reverend C. R. Eliot, of Boston, Professor Francis G. Peabody, and others. Resolutions were adopted emphasizing the need of the purification of politics, especially those of municipalities, and expressing a profound sense of the evils resulting from the liquor traffic as not only involving needless expenditure of money and the impairment of mental and physical energy, but as offering the chief obstruction to the triumph of morality and religion, and being a reproach to enlightened people and to Christian civilization.

MEETING OF THE AMERICAN BOARD OF FOREIGN MISSIONS.

THE American Board of Commissioners of Foreign Missions, a congregational body, began its eighty-sixth annual meeting in the Academy of Music, Brooklyn, N. Y., October 15, and continued in session four days. The meeting was opened by the president, Dr. R. S. Storrs. Words of welcome were spoken by Dr. Behrend, and the annual sermon was delivered by Dr. George A. Gordon. The opening session was largely occupied with the reports of secretaries and other business necessary in an organization of this kind. It is reported that an unusually large number of missionaries were present, and their reports of the progress made in the various fields were subjects of great interest. To pay the debt of almost \$115,000 incurred, nearly \$30,000 was raised, of which \$25,000 was a single subscription. Notwithstanding this large debt the Board seemed to take a hopeful view of the present outlook for missions. The next meeting of the Board will be held in Cleveland, Ohio.

The Outlook. (New York, N. Y.)

The Board has expended in foreign lands during the year \$661,885.99. This has been done at an expenditure of \$53,346 for agencies, printing, and cost of administration; or a little more than 5 per cent of the sum spent directly in the missions—a refutation of the oft-repeated lie that every dollar spent in missions requires another dollar to send it. Where is the business house whose management is so economical? Nevertheless, the Board has to face a debt this year of \$114,632.38. Hard times are in part responsible for this. Another cause is the negligence of churches to make offerings. Such debts have occurred before. This one, through the measures taken, will probably be canceled by next March. A more serious cause of concern lies in the necessity of an immediate and sharp advance in contributions to meet an emergency caused by the drying up of a recent source of supply.

As for the present debt, a committee of ten was appointed to solicit individual subscriptions, not to interfere with regular contributions, and conditioned on the whole sum being raised by March 1. With this was announced the pledge of an anonymous benefactor of \$25,000 to head the list. [Nearly \$5,000 additional was raised in the meeting.] The most important action taken by the Board was the resolution giving instructions to the prudential committee to confine its expenditures within its income, and to throw the responsibility for the reduction of the work, if such reduction should come, upon the churches. In our judgment, the great missionary boards have made a great mistake in the past in assuming that it is their duty to raise the money as well as to direct the expenditures.

Zion's Herald. (Boston, Mass.)

Interest, of course, centered in the survey of progress reported in the various fields by the secretaries who have the work in charge, and by returned missionaries—particularly in such districts as Turkey and China, which have been involved in war, and in which the workers have been exposed to peculiar dangers and hardships; also, in the excellent work performed by the coöperating women's society. It appears, from the reports of the secretaries, that the

Board maintains 571 missionaries in heathen countries, including Africa, Turkey, India and Ceylon, China, Japan, the Pacific islands, and the Papal lands. It employs 2,870 native laborers and has 421 churches, besides 1,170 schools of all grades. Its communicants number 41,871, of whom 3,055 were added in 1893-4, while its schools furnish instruction to 51,406 pupils.

The Observer. (New York, N. Y.)

The crowning glory of this year's meeting of the American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions was the session of Thursday evening, when the Reverend Dr. Storrs delivered an address as president of the Board. A crowded house, an expectant audience, a great crisis, an exalted theme, and a brilliant oration which captivated alike intellect and heart, combined to make this meeting one of the conspicuous events in a life of highest excellence and power. . . . The address presented as in a panoramic view the matchless achievements of Christianity in the different departments of human life and development, as well as the irresistible progress of the gospel, which is owing to the power of God which abides in it and is also behind the messenger of the cross. As a whole the address was a mighty as well as eloquent defense of the truth of Christ's gospel, and of the paramount duty of spreading it over the earth.

The Advance. (Chicago, Ill.)

Secretary Smith's statesmanlike paper, reviewing the history and present condition of mission work, showed the outlook to be one of remarkable promise. Once we prayed that the doors might be opened. Now we are burdened by the largeness of the answer to our own prayers. Japan, in spite of its overweening self-confidence; China in spite of its humiliation and local exhibitions of antagonism to the missionaries; Turkey in spite of the horrible outrages perpetrated upon the Armenian Christians with the connivance of the government, still present the most encouraging inducements to go forward with the work, and the same may be said with greater emphasis of the fields which have not met with those discouragements.

SUMMARY OF NEWS.

HOME.

October 11. The National Farmers' Congress meets at Atlanta, Ga.

October 12. The suit of the United States against the Leland Stanford estate decided in favor of the defendant. Amount involved \$15,000,000.

October 13. Three persons killed and nine injured in a Pittsburg trolley-car accident.

October 15. The South Carolina Constitutional Convention reconvenes.

October 16. The semi-centennial of the incorporation of Milwaukee, Wis., celebrated.

October 17. The steamer *St. Paul*, of the American Line, completes her first voyage from New York to Southampton.

October 18. The battle ship *Indiana*, on her trial trip, averages 15.61 knots an hour, proving herself the fastest vessel of her class afloat.

October 19. The United States gunboats *Nashville* and *Wilmington* launched at Newport News, Va.

October 20. Fire in the western part of New Orleans, La., destroys 200 houses and makes 1,000 people homeless.

October 21. Cotton declines 60 points; great excitement shown; sales enormous.

October 23. President's Day successfully observed at the Atlanta Exposition.—Secretary Carlisle orders the coinage of silver dollars stopped after November 1.

October 24. A dispatch from Washington asserts that a great European power, friendly to the United States, is interesting itself in the Venezuelan affair and the Monroe doctrine.—A Lake Shore train runs from Buffalo to Chicago in eight hours and two minutes, making the fastest railroad time on record.

October 27. The main building of the University of Virginia destroyed by fire; many rare paintings and books consumed; estimated loss \$100,000.

October 31. An earthquake shock is felt from the Atlantic Ocean to Kansas and from the Gulf to the Great Lakes.

November 1. President Cleveland receives a letter from the Japanese emperor expressing thanks for the United States' assistance in bringing the Eastern war to an end.—The Nicaraguan Canal Commission presents its report to the president.—Durrant convicted of murder.

November 2. Holmes found guilty of murder and sentenced to death.—President Cleveland upholds Secretary Herbert's decision that the United States would violate her agreement of 1817 with Great Britain, in building gunboats on the Great Lakes.

November 3. The announcement is made that Mr. John D. Rockefeller has given three million dollars more to the University of Chicago.

November 4. The president designates Thursday, Nov. 28, as Thanksgiving Day.

November 5. The Carnegie Music Hall, Library, and Art Gallery, in Pittsburg are dedicated. Mr. Carnegie says he will give \$1,000,000 endowment to the art gallery.

FOREIGN.

October 11. Three thousand engineers and their assistants in the shipbuilding yards of Belfast, Ireland, go out on a strike.—The United States cruiser *Marblehead* ordered to the Gulf of Alexandretta to protect Americans in Turkey.

October 13. News received of a serious rebellion in the Portuguese colony of Goa, India.

October 16. Rear-Admiral Navarro is appointed Spanish naval commander in Cuban waters.

October 17. The sultan signs the proposal for Armenian reforms.

October 18. The English missions at Chang Pu, in the island of Amoy destroyed by rioters.—A Spanish cabinet council decides to call 85,000 men for active military service before the end of the year.

October 25. Reports of uprisings and slaughter of Armenians near Erzeroum, Turkey.

October 29. A British naval squadron reported to be concentrating at Foo-Chow.—Fighting between Turks and Armenians reported from Marad near Aleppo.

October 30. The American minister at Constantinople warns the Porte that it will be held responsible for the safety of American missionaries.

October 31. The first installment of the Chinese war indemnity paid to Japan.—The king of Ashantee rejects the British ultimatum.

November 1. An earthquake does serious damage to buildings in Rome.—An outbreak is feared at Moosh; the Turks ask the American missionaries to withdraw.

November 3. The French minister of the interior orders arbitration in the Carmaux glass-workers' strike.

November 4. Miners arriving at Tacoma report that the Canadian police are fortifying points on the Alaskan boundary.

November 5. Two thousand union workmen locked out of the Glasgow shipyards.

NECROLOGY.

October 21. Menelik II., King of Abyssinia. Born 1843.

October 25. Sir Charles Halle, the composer, at Manchester, England.

November 4. Eugene Field, American journalist and poet. Born 1850.—M. Cuheval-Clarigny, French journalist and member of the Institute. Born 1820.

C. L. S. C. OUTLINE AND PROGRAMS.

FOR DECEMBER.

OUTLINE OF REQUIRED READING.

First Week (ending December 3).

"The Growth of the American Nation." Chapters XIV. and XV.

"Industrial Evolution of the United States." Chapters XVIII. and XIX.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

"Iceland and its People."

"The Constitution of the United States."

Sunday Reading for December 1.

Second Week (ending December 10).

"The Growth of the American Nation." Chapters XVI. and XVII.

"Industrial Evolution of the United States." Chapters XX. and XXI.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

"Intellectual Life of the American People."

"Conquest of the Under Earth."

Sunday Reading for December 8.

Third Week (ending December 17).

"The Growth of the American Nation." Chapters XVIII. and XIX.

"Industrial Evolution of the United States." Chapters XXII., XXIII., and XXIV.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

"Pensions in Legislation."

Sunday Reading for December 15.

Fourth Week (ending December 24).

"The Growth of the American Nation." Chapter XX.

"Industrial Evolution of the United States." Chapters XXV. and XXVI.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

"Webster's Reply to Hayne."

"New England Customs."

Sunday Reading for December 22.

Fifth Week (ending December 31).

"The Growth of the American Nation." Chapters XXI. and XXII.

"Industrial Evolution of the United States." Chapter XXVII.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

Sunday Reading for December 29.

FOR CANADIAN READERS.

Withrow and Adams' Canadian History.

First week, Chapters XXVIII.—XXXII.

Second week, Chapters XXXIII.—XXXV.

Third week, Chapters XXXVI.—XXXIX.

Fourth week, Chapters XL.—XLII.

Fifth week, Chapter XLIII.

SUGGESTIVE PROGRAMS FOR LOCAL CIRCLE WORK.

FIRST WEEK.

1. The Lesson.
2. Readings—"The Skeleton in Armor" and "Saga of King Olaf" by H. W. Longfellow.
3. Essay—Robert Owen and Altruism.
4. Debate—Resolved: That the government should own all telegraphs, telephones and railroads.
5. Table Talk—Violations of the Monroe Doctrine.*

SECOND WEEK.

1. Quotations from Milton.
2. The Lesson.
3. Character Study—Henry Clay.
4. General Discussion—Labor organizations, their advantages and disadvantages.
5. Conversation—The mineral resources of the southern hemisphere.*

THIRD WEEK.

1. The Lesson.
2. Character Study—Contrasting lives—Daniel Webster and John C. Calhoun.
3. Discussion—Panics and their causes.
4. Questions on American History and Industrial Development in *The Question Table*.
5. Conversation—Utah.*

FOURTH WEEK.

1. The Lesson.
2. Reading—"Snow Bound" by J. G. Whittier.
3. Essay—Margaret Fuller Ossoli.
4. Questions on American Literature, and Psychology in *The Question Table*.
5. Table Talk—Russia.*

FIFTH WEEK.

1. The Lesson.
2. Table Talk—Historical compromises.
3. *Questions and Answers* in THE CHAUTAUQUAN.
4. Discussion—The W. C. T. U. and its Leaders.*

For a Christmas program, if one is desired, a pleasing entertainment could be arranged, consisting of descriptions of Christmas celebrations in different countries and the reading or telling of Christmas stories, interspersed with instrumental and vocal music. An interesting story of "A Colonial Christmas in the Red Hills of Georgia," will be found in the present number of THE CHAUTAUQUAN and "The Christmas Carol" by Charles Dickens would also be very entertaining. These could be appropriately followed by a Christmas treat in the way of a banquet served in colonial style.

* See *Current History and Opinion*.

C. L. S. C. NOTES AND WORD STUDIES.

ON REQUIRED READINGS FOR DECEMBER.

"THE GROWTH OF THE AMERICAN NATION."

P. 189. "Anglomania." An inordinate admiration for English customs or institutions.

P. 190. "Pandora's box." A box, said to have been given to Pandora by Jupiter, containing all the ills that afflict humanity, which, when the box was opened by her, escaped into the world.

P. 192. "Hanging British subjects." During the Indian troubles in Florida in 1818, General Jackson's troops captured Alexander Arbuthnot and Robert Ambrister, an English lieutenant of marines, whom the general believed were inciting the Indians to hostilities against the United States. After trial by court-martial the latter was hanged from the yardarm of his own ship and Ambrister was shot.

P. 193. "Lord Brogham" [broo'am]. (1778-1868.) An English orator and scientist.

P. 204. "Macadam." John Loudon Macadam (1756-1836), a Scottish engineer invented the system of macadamizing roads.

Thomas Telford (1757-1837), a civil engineer of Scotland, invented the Telford pavement.

P. 211. James Parton (1822-1891) was an American biographer.

P. 215. "*Vive voce*." Latin. By the living voice; orally.

P. 223. "Piping times of peace." A quotation from Shakspeare's "Richard III." Times in which the pipes of peace take the place of the warlike fife and drum.

P. 224. "Innocuous." From the Latin *innocuus*, (harmful) and Anglicized by changing the ending *us* to *ous*.

P. 237. "Kitchen cabinet." "An appellation in common use during the administration of President Jackson. Two men were frequently consulted by the president as confidential advisors. To avoid observation, when they called on him they entered the president's dwelling by a back door. On this account, the opposition party, who believed the advice of these two men caused Jackson to fill nearly all the offices with Democrats, after turning out the incumbents, called them in derision the 'Kitchen Cabinet.'"—*Harper's "Cyclopedia of United States History."*

P. 239. "*Pro rata*." Latin. In proportion; proportionally.

P. 240. "Boomerang." A weapon used by the natives of Australia. It consists of a curved piece of hard wood from sixteen to thirty inches in length, which can be so hurled that it will return to the point from which it is thrown. In a figurative

sense, as used in the text, any scheme or plan whose results are unfortunate for the designer, or opposite to those intended.

P. 264. "Williams College" was founded in 1793 by Colonel Ephraim Williams, at Williamstown, Massachusetts.

P. 265. "Washingtonian movement." "The Washingtonian Society, the first organized on total abstinence principles, was organized in Baltimore in 1840 by six men of intemperate habits, who signed a pledge to totally abstain from intoxicating drinks."

P. 266. "Fourier" [föö-ryä']. A French socialist (1772-1837) who advocated a coöperative social system called Fourierism. The associations into which society was to be divided, called "phalanxes," were grouped according to the occupations or capabilities of the members.

P. 288. "Neuces" [nwä'sës].

P. 292. "El Dorado" [el dö-rä'dö]. Spanish words meaning literally "the gilded." This term is used to designate a place where gold is supposed to exist, probably from an annual ceremony said to have been performed by an Indian tribe in South America. According to tradition it was customary for the chief to anoint his body with balsam and gold dust, after which he bathed in a lake into which gold and precious stones had been thrown by the natives as offerings to the goddess of the lake.

NOTE.—We call attention to an error on page 94 of "The Growth of the American Nation." The picture given is of Old South Church; but it was from the tower of Christ Church, commonly called "Old North," in another part of the city, that the lights were shown on the night of Paul Revere's memorable ride. This error appears only in the first edition of the book, having been corrected in the later editions.

"INDUSTRIAL EVOLUTION OF THE UNITED STATES."

P. 231. "Boy'cott." See page 318 of the text-book.

P. 232. "Ship calkers" [kāk'ers]. Those who are employed in making the seams of ships tight to prevent leaking.

P. 233. "Thurlow Weed" (1797-1882) was a prominent journalist and politician in the United States.

"Truck system." The practice of paying wages by goods of various kinds instead of money.

P. 235. "Fourierism" [föö'ri-ër-ism].

P. 237. "Inalienability of homesteads." Not transferable to another.

"Lien" [lën or l'ën]. From a French word meaning bond, or tie; specifically the right of a

laborer to the possession of the product of his labor until his wages are paid.

"Locofoco" [lō-kō-fō'ko]. "A name originally applied to one faction of the Democratic party. At a meeting in Tammany Hall, New York, in 1834, there was great diversity of sentiment upon certain questions. . . . To dissolve the meeting the chairman left his seat and the lights were all extinguished, but the radicals rekindled them with 'locofoco,' or friction, matches, reorganized the meeting, and carried their measures; and it finally became a popular designation of the whole Democratic party in the Union."—*Harper's "Cyclopedia of United States History."*

P. 240. Rantoul [ran'tōl].

"Propaganda" [prop-a-gan'da]. An organization for promulgating a new doctrine or system of principles.

P. 247. "Sic." A Latin word meaning thus.

P. 250. "Ref-e-ren'dum." "The right of the people to decide on certain laws or measures which have been passed by the legislative body."

P. 251. "Legal tender." Any money or currency which can lawfully be used to discharge a debt.

"Right of eminent domain." The supreme authority of a government over the lands within its boundaries by which it may, for a sufficient consideration, appropriate any lands deemed necessary to the public good.

P. 257. "I-con'o-clasm." The belief or practice of the Iconoclasts, or image destroyers, of the eighth

and ninth centuries, a sect violently opposed to the worship of images; therefore, the act of attacking or destroying any cherished belief or institution.

P. 261. "Black list." A list of those who have participated in a strike or who are held under suspicion.

P. 273. "Pro and con." For and against.

P. 278. "Common law." "Law which derives its force from the universal consent and long practice of the people. . . . To a great extent, common law is common custom which has become so fixed and so universal that courts recognize and enforce it as a rule."—*Dole's "Talks about Law."*

P. 284. Indictable [in-dit'a-ble].

"Court of Oyer and Terminer." A criminal court whose judges have power to hear and determine certain specified offenses. This name is the same as that of the English court having similar jurisdiction.

P. 288. "*Conseils de Prud'hommes*" [kōn-sèi dü. prü dōm']. French words meaning literally, councils of men well versed. These councils consisted of master tradesmen and workmen convened for the purpose of deciding disputes between persons of both classes.

P. 294. "Cordwainer." Specifically, one who works with cordovan leather; a shoemaker.

P. 302. "Termini." The plural form of the word *terminus*, meaning ends.

P. 313. "Rolling-stock." The cars and locomotives used on railways.

REQUIRED READINGS IN "THE CHAUTAUQUAN."

"ICELAND AND ITS PEOPLE."

1. "Gulf Stream." One of the warm currents of the Atlantic Ocean caused by the heat of the sun. It seems to start near the north coast of Cuba and follows the coast of North America to Newfoundland, where it divides, one branch crossing the ocean to the northeast, past the coast of Norway, and the other turning north mingling with the arctic current near Greenland and Iceland.

2. That the frigid zone has long periods of darkness followed by equal periods of light is due to the fact that the earth's axis is inclined to the plane of its orbit and also to the fact that the axis always points in the same general direction throughout the year.

3. "Vikings." Sea rovers or robbers from Scandinavia, who infested the seas during the eighth and ninth centuries.

4. "Reykjavik" [rik'yä vik]. Also written Reikiavik, or vig.

5. "Thingvalla" [tīng'vil-ä].

6. "Heroic age." That time in the history of a nation which precedes the historic period, the age when heroes are supposed to have lived.

7. "Scandinavian monarchies." Norway, Sweden, and Denmark.

8. "Norsemen." The natives of the ancient Scandinavian monarchies. They were also called Northmen.

9. "Cosmogony." It is defined as an account of the creation of the world or universe, or the theory of such creation.

10. "Odin." The chief god of the Scandinavians.

11. "Genoese" [jēn-ē-ēz']. From Genoa, Italy.

12. "Zeolites" [zē'ō-lītes]. Stones that seem to boil and expand when heated by the blow pipe, which characteristic gives them the name, from the Greek *zein*, to boil, and *litos*, a stone.

13. "Chalcedony" [kāl-sēd'o-ny]. A very hard variety of quartz having a waxy luster, found near Chalcedon, an ancient town in Asia Minor.

"THE CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES."

1. "Bowdoin" [bō'dn].

2. "Hiatus" [hi-ä'tus]. From the Latin *hiatus*, an aperture, a chasm.

3. "Quasi" [kwä'si] [L]. As if; apparently. It is sometimes used as a prefix with a noun; as, quasi-trustee.

4. "Recusant" [rek'ū-zant, or re-kū'zant]. Stub-

bornly rejecting or refusing; from *recusare*, to refuse or reject.

"THE INTELLECTUAL LIFE OF THE AMERICAN PEOPLE."

1. "Bay Colony." A colony on the shores of Massachusetts Bay, of which Salem was the first settlement, founded by John Endicott in 1628. It included all the territory between the Charles and Merrimac Rivers.

2. "Graeca Majora" [grē'ka mā-jō'ra]. A Greek text-book containing selections from Greek authors studied in colleges.

3. "Cicero de Oratore." The title of a treatise on oratory by Cicero.

4. "Euclid." A treatise on geometry by Euclid, a celebrated mathematician living in Alexandria about 300 B. C.

5. "Fluxions." Newton's "Treatise on Fluxions," resembling the modern differential calculus which treats of variable quantities and the rate with which they change.

6. "Evidences." "Evidences of Christianity," by Paley, published in 1794.

"THE CONQUEST OF THE UNDER EARTH."

1. "Meteorites." Masses of metal or stone which have fallen through space to the earth. They show signs of having been formed in the presence of great heat. Iron is the predominating metal, and no mineral has been discovered in them which has not also been found on the earth.

2. "Davy." The name applied to the safety lamp invented by Sir Humphrey Davy in 1815, to prevent gas explosions in coal mines. A wire gauze covering the lamp prevents the contact of the flame with the highly explosive gas in the mine.

3. "Faultings." Breaking or dislocating of strata so that what was once a continuous stratum is separated. They are probably caused by movements of the earth's crust.

4. "Carboniferous." From Latin *carbo* (coal) and *ferre* (to bear), coal-bearing. One of the divisions of geological time in which was developed the vegetation which formed the present coal-beds.

5. "Silurian age." A term applied to the early Paleozoic era, so called because the rocks of this era were most abundant in England and Wales where in ancient times a people called the Silures dwelt. It is conspicuous for the absence of remains of vertebrates. A few fossils of seaweed have been found and also remains of mollusks.

6. "Green sand." A stratum in the Cretaceous group of stratified rock, about 100 feet thick. It is composed of dark, round nodules, which when crushed have a bright green color.

"WEBSTER'S REPLY TO HAYNE."

1. "Mirabeau" [mē-rā-bō']. A French orator who presided over the National Assembly in 1791.

2. "Nonchalance" [nōn-shā-lāns']. From *non* (not) and *chaloir* (to trouble one's self), carelessness; indifference.

3. "Bonus vir." Latin. A good man.

4. "Buffon" [bü-fōn'] (1707-1788). A French naturalist who delivered a discourse on "Style" in 1753 when admitted to the French Academy.

5. "Jeremiah Mason" (1768-1848) was a congressman from New Hampshire.

6. "Æneid" [ē-nē'id]. An epic poem in twelve parts or books written by Virgil having for its theme the adventures of Æneas after the fall of Troy. The first book contains a description of a fierce storm which wrecked the boat of Æneas and the quelling of the storm by Neptune, who according to mythology governed all the waters of the earth, was sole monarch of the sea, and could, by a word, stir up the wildest storm or produce immediate calm.

7. "Coalition." A reference to an alleged agreement between Clay and Adams in which the latter promised to appoint Clay secretary of state as a reward for his services in securing Adams' election to the presidency, thus placing Clay in the line of presidential succession, according to an established precedent. The failure of Clay to secure the presidency at the next election was referred to by Hayne as the "murdered Coalition."

8. "Banquo." A character in Shakespeare's tragedy of "Macbeth," whose posterity the Weird Sisters had promised should reign, and who on that account was murdered by the order of Macbeth.

9. "*Teucro duce*." Latin. By Trojan leadership.

10. The Virginia Resolutions, framed by Madison, opposed the "loose construction" of the Constitution and protested against the Alien and Sedition Laws as "palpable and alarming infractions of the Constitution."

11. "Samuel Dexter" (1761-1816). A noted lawyer from Massachusetts and a member of President Adams' cabinet.

12. "*Callida junctura*." Latin. Skillful joining.

"NEW ENGLAND CUSTOMS."

1. "Prototype." From *protos* (first) and *typos* (model or type); hence an original pattern or model which is the standard.

2. "Musicales" [mū-zī-kāl'z]. A French word, meaning the same as musicals; private concerts.

3. "Clocked hose." Ornamented on the ankle with a figure called a clock, either woven into the fabric or embroidered upon it.

4. "Surtout" [sūr-tōōt']. From the French *sur* (over) and *tout* (all), literally over all; an overcoat.

5. "Stent." The same as stint; a definite prescribed task.

6. "Latchstrings are out." An expression of welcome originating from the custom of leaving the latchstring out when the house was ready to receive guests.

QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS.

ON THE C. L. S. C. TEXT-BOOKS.

"THE GROWTH OF THE AMERICAN NATION."

1. Q. What period is usually called the "era of good feeling"? A. The decade following the War of 1812.

2. Q. When did the Federalists cast their last electoral vote? A. In 1817.

3. Q. What two Presidents died July 4, 1826? A. John Adams and Thomas Jefferson.

4. Q. Who were the leading men of the new era? A. Jackson, Clay, Calhoun, and Webster.

5. Q. What subjects were discussed by the political parties? A. Internal improvements, a protective tariff, and the national bank.

6. Q. What names did the political parties bear in this new era? A. Whig and Democrat.

7. Q. Who was the last of the revolutionary politicians? A. President Monroe.

8. Q. Who was the most popular leader of the Republican party? A. Henry Clay.

9. Q. When was the idea of protection first made prominent? A. By the act of 1816, intended as a reduction of the war tariff.

10. Q. Under this tariff what was the average *ad valorem* duty? A. Twenty-five per cent.

11. Q. For how long was the first United States bank chartered? A. Twenty years.

12. Q. Why were the banks obliged to suspend specie payment? A. The imperative demand for military supplies drained them of coin.

13. Q. Where was the second bank established? A. In Philadelphia.

14. Q. What was one great object in establishing this bank? A. To secure the resumption of specie payment.

15. Q. What was thought to be one of the causes of the crisis of 1819? A. The inadequate protection of manufactures.

16. Q. How was this remedied? A. By a new tariff law increasing the duties to thirty-three and a third per cent.

17. Q. What were two other striking features of this decade? A. The Missouri Compromise and the Monroe Doctrine.

18. Q. On what condition was Missouri admitted into the Union as a slave state? A. That slavery be prohibited in all other territory north of the parallel of 36° 30', the southern boundary of Missouri.

19. Q. What were the three points of the Monroe Doctrine? A. 1. No more European colonies in America. 2. No extension to this continent of the European political system. 3. No inter-

ference with the independence of the American republics.

20. Q. Why was President Adams' administration so barren of results? A. Every measure suggested by the administration was opposed and thwarted, if possible, without regard to merit, by those who were determined to secure Jackson for president in 1828.

21. Q. What was the first great national attempt at internal improvements? A. The Cumberland Road, projected in 1806.

22. Q. How did Fulton's steamboat affect the development of the West? A. By reducing freight rates, and increasing the speed and convenience of travel it stimulated immigration.

23. Q. What was the effect of the rapid development of the West? A. It stimulated improvement in transportation.

24. Q. What new route of commerce was opened in 1825? A. The Erie Canal connecting the Hudson River with the Great Lakes at Buffalo.

25. Q. What is one of the characteristics of American social organization? A. The balance everywhere preserved between local independence and general authority.

26. Q. What political system was inaugurated by President Jackson? A. The spoils system.

27. Q. During Jackson's administration what subject was most discussed? A. The tariff.

28. Q. How was the tariff bill of 1828 received? A. It was opposed by the South and supported by the North.

29. Q. What ordinance was adopted by the South Carolina convention? A. An ordinance declaring the tariff acts of 1828 and 1832 null and void in that state, requiring all state officers to take an oath to support the ordinance, and threatening to secede if the United States should attempt coercion.

30. Q. How was the difficulty adjusted? A. By a compromise bill providing for the gradual reduction of the tariff until in 1842 the rate should be twenty per cent with a large free list.

31. Q. What were the causes of the panic of 1837? A. Speculation, abundance of "cheap money," and the wild financiering at the treasury of the United States.

32. Q. In President Van Buren's message to Congress what plan was recommended as a relief? A. The sub-treasury plan.

33. Q. What name is given to the political campaign of 1840? A. The log cabin and hard cider campaign.

34. Q. Who were elected? A. Harrison and Tyler.

35. Q. What measure was vetoed by Tyler? A. The measure providing for a bank of the United States.

36. Q. What new question came before the conventions of 1844? A. The annexation of Texas.

37. Q. What were the provisions of the Compromise of 1850? A. 1. California was admitted as a free state. 2. New Mexico and Utah Territories were organized without mentioning slavery. 3. Texas was paid \$10,000,000 for its claim to New Mexico. 4. The slave trade was forbidden in the District of Columbia. 5. A Fugitive Slave Law.

"INDUSTRIAL EVOLUTION OF THE UNITED STATES."

1. Q. What is meant by the labor question? A. The effort of wage-earners to secure a higher standard of living.

2. Q. What is the great question of the day? A. How to secure the ends for which this struggle upward is instituted.

3. Q. Where did the labor movement have its birth? A. In Virginia and Plymouth.

4. Q. During the colonial period what progress was made by this movement? A. There seems to have been no concerted action of any consequence, except the organization of the "Calkers' Club," and a few societies of tradesmen of different classes having various motives in forming their associations.

5. Q. What prevented extensive organization? A. The domestic system of labor, which kept workers in individual workshops and in their homes.

6. Q. When did labor unions begin to be influential? A. Not until the opening of the present century.

7. Q. What was the effect of Robert Owen's altruistic preachings? A. They developed the spirit of association.

8. Q. How was this spirit manifested? A. By the founding of more than two hundred communistic villages.

9. Q. What period is called the era of reform movements? A. The period from 1825—1850.

10. Q. What reason may be assigned for the extension of the labor movement after 1825? A. The factory system and the consequent concentration of labor in industrial centers.

11. Q. Which cities were pronounced in these movements? A. Boston and New York.

12. Q. In the various conventions what subjects were discussed? A. The relation of employers to employees, the ten-hour system, the right of laborers to organize for securing and protecting their interests, and the effect of a general trades union on strikes and lockouts.

13. What resolution was adopted by the merchants and shipowners at their meeting in Boston in 1832? A. Not to employ any journeyman who at the time belongs to such combination, nor give work to any master mechanic who shall employ them while they continue thus pledged to each other and refuse to work the hours which it has been and is now customary for mechanics to work.

14. Q. What is the oldest existing American trades union? A. The International Typographical Union.

15. Q. From 1836 to 1863 to what subjects was labor legislation in Massachusetts confined? A. Education of children employed in factories, imprisonment for debt, liens, and special acts incorporating mechanics' institutes, etc.

16. Q. When and where was the first Bureau of Statistics of Labor established? A. In Massachusetts in 1869.

17. Q. To what has the experience of this office led? A. To the establishment of bureaus in thirty-one states and the United States Department of Labor and bureaus in several foreign countries.

18. Q. Of what benefit were the facts obtained by these bureaus? A. They assisted in securing wise legislation.

19. Q. When was the ten-hour law passed? A. In 1874.

20. Q. What were the provisions of the ten-hour law? A. No minor under the age of eighteen years and no woman over that age shall be employed in any manufacturing establishment more than ten hours in one day, except when it is necessary to make repairs to prevent the stoppage or interruption of the ordinary running of the machinery.

21. Q. Prior to 1824 how were labor organizations regarded in England? A. As conspiracy and felony.

22. Q. To constitute a case of conspiracy under the law, what must now accompany combinations? A. Intimidation, violence, and threats.

23. Q. What has been done to avoid the evils arising from the "truck system"? A. Laws have been passed in many states making it unlawful for an employer to pay wages in goods.

24. Q. To what topic does another important branch of labor legislation relate? A. Industrial arbitration.

25. Q. What does arbitration seek to do? A. To adjust difficulties after industrial war is declared.

26. Q. When does a strike occur? A. When the employees of an establishment refuse to work unless the management complies with some demand made upon it.

27. Q. With whom does a lockout originate? A. With the employer.

28. Q. For what causes were strikes mostly undertaken? A. For increase of wages, reduction of hours, against reduction of wages, and for increase of wages and reduction of hours.

29. Q. What historic strikes have occurred in the United States? A. The railroad strike of 1877; the strikes on the Gould system, 1885-86; the Homestead strike, 1892; the Chicago strikes of 1894.

30. Q. What is a boycott? A. Any organized attempt to coerce a person into compliance with any demand through a combination pledged to abstain and pledged to compel others to abstain from having social intercourse with him or to trade with him.

31. Q. In what two ways has machinery affected labor? A. Machinery has caused a displacement of labor and also an expansion of labor.

THE QUESTION TABLE.

ANSWERS IN NEXT NUMBER.

AMERICAN LITERATURE.—III.

1. Who first wrote the words, "The United States of America"?

2. Who is the author of "Hail Columbia"; of "Star Spangled Banner"?

3. In what form did the story "Uncle Tom's Cabin" first appear in print?

4. Though Charles Brockden Brown is said to have preceded Washington Irving in his field of literature, in what two essential qualities do his works differ from Irving's?

5. After the success in America of "The Sketch Book," for what sum did Washington Irving sell the copyright of the volume to an English publisher?

6. What American novelist began his career by writing to make good his boyish boast that he could produce a better story than the English novel which he had just thrown down in disgust at its dullness?

7. Name two stories by Poe, each of which won for him a one hundred dollar prize.

8. Name three renowned historians native to Massachusetts.

9. Who was the first American poet to whom a public monument was erected in the United States?

10. Who is the author of "There was a little girl and she had a little curl" etc.?

AMERICAN HISTORY AND INDUSTRIAL EVOLUTION.—III.

1. What act was called "the tariff of abominations"?

2. When and by whom was the Ashburton treaty negotiated? What were its terms?

3. Name the rebellions which have occurred in our history?

4. Who has been United States senator, governor, minister to England, vice-president, and president?

5. By whose influence was the Expunging Resolution of 1837 adopted?

6. What branch of industry has probably received the fullest protection by the tariff laws?

7. How does the United States now rank with the mother country in regard to manufactures?

8. What discovery caused an evolution in the silver industry in the United States?

9. How does the density of population affect the railway service?

10. To what extent has railway consolidation taken place?

PSYCHOLOGY.—III.

1. Define conception.

2. What are the processes of conception?

3. By what term do most writers designate the product of conception?

4. How may judgment be defined?

5. That accuracy in judging may be secured what conditions are necessary?

6. What expression is used in popular speech to denote sound reliable judgment?

7. How do synthetic judgment and analytic judgment differ?

8. What power or faculty is that by which new truths are discerned through related truths?

9. What is meant by inductive reasoning?

10. What is that method of reasoning called which proceeds from the general truth to the particular?

CURRENT EVENTS.—III.

1. Have the Cuban revolutionists organized a government with full power to maintain it? Have they established a port of entry?

2. How do these facts affect the recognition of their belligerency by different nations?

3. How does the French cabinet differ from that of the United States.

4. Who organized the French cabinet in January, 1895?

5. Within two years what three men have been presidents of France?

6. What is the subject of dispute between Great Britain and Venezuela?

7. In what way may this involve the United States?

8. What is meant by the Corinto incident?

9. Who is the United States minister to England?

10. By what name do the Mormons distinguish themselves? When and by whom was this denomination founded? Where was their first temple built?

ANSWERS TO QUESTIONS IN "THE CHAUTAUQUAN"

FOR NOVEMBER.

AMERICAN LITERATURE.—II.

1. "Wieland, or the Transformation." 2. Philip Freneau. 3. Tom Paine. 4. The treason of Arnold and the death of Major André. 5. Alexander Hamilton. 6. The Blue-back Spelling Book; only one cent a copy. 7. With intense resentment against him for disappointed hopes. 8. Patrick Henry. 9. and 10. Thomas Jefferson.

AMERICAN HISTORY AND INDUSTRIAL DEVELOPMENT.—II.

1. Philadelphia. Silver half-dimes. 2. Charles C. Pinckney. Stephen Decatur. 4. Commodore Perry. 5. James Madison. 6. Meriwether Lewis and William Clark. 7. King James I. 8. Knitting. 9. 1790. 10. Lucy Larcom.

PSYCHOLOGY.—II.

1. The measurement of the rate of transmission of a nerve impulse, or of reaction time. 2. Prof. Helmholtz. 3. The sciatic nerve of a frog. 4. The ophthalmoscope. 5. No. 6. It is shortened. 7. Age and fatigue lengthen reaction time and practice shortens it. 8. To methods of measuring the time of thought. 9. Recognition, discrimination, choice and association. 10. Conception, judgment, reason.

CURRENT EVENTS.—II.

1. In 1798, abolished in 1799, and revived in 1855. Washington, Scott, Grant, Sherman, Sheridan, and Schofield. 2. Washington, Grant, Sherman and Sheridan. 3. Atlanta in 1881, and New Orleans in 1884. 4. In 1891. 82° north latitude. 5. Garibaldi. Candlemaker. 6. Opening the first parliament of United Italy, February 18, 1861, and the public avowal of the reconciliation between himself and Garibaldi. 7. In 1893. 8. Major under Garibaldi. 9. Since 1878. 10. To America in 1854.

THE C. L. S. C. CLASSES.

1882-1899.

CLASS OF 1896.—"TRUTH SEEKERS."

"*Truth is eternal.*"

OFFICERS.

President—R. C. Browning, Orange, N. J.

Vice Presidents—The Rev. Chas. C. Johnson, Arcade, N. Y.; Mrs. Francis W. Parker, Chicago, Ill.; Miss Cynthia I. Boyd, Knoxville, Tenn.; Mrs. Anna Hodgson, Athens, Ga.; F. G. Lewis, Manitoba; Oliver Ellsworth, Niles, Cal.; Mrs. Wheaton Smith, Detroit, Mich.

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Recording Secretary—Miss Dora D. McKean, 46 Fiftieth St., Franklin, Pa.

Treasurer and Class Trustee—John A. Seaton, Glen Park Place, Cleveland, Ohio.

CLASS FLOWER—FORGET-ME-NOT.

CLASS EMBLEM—A LAMP.

MANY members of circles who graduate next year will prefer to remain in these circles and renew their four years' work, but there will be others who will feel the need of taking up special lines of work, and all such graduates may wisely put forth special efforts to strengthen these circles by the enrollment of new members before they find it necessary to withdraw.

CLASS OF 1897.—"THE ROMANS."

"*Veni, Vidi, Vici.*"

OFFICERS.

President—Prof. F. J. Miller, University of Chicago.

Vice Presidents—Prof. Wm. E. Waters, Cincinnati, O.; Mr. A. A. Stagg, Chicago, Ill.; Mrs. A. E. Barber, Bethel, Conn.; Miss Jessie Scott, Miss. ; Mrs. M. T. Gawthorp, Swarthmore, Pa.; Mrs. G. B. Driscoll, Sidney, O.; Mrs. Carrie V. Shaw-Rice,

Tacoma, Wash.; the Rev. James E. Coombs, Victoria, B. C.; Miss Emily Green, New South Wales; Charles E. Boyd, Cambridge, Mass.

Secretary—Miss Eva M. Martin, Dayton, O.

Treasurer and Trustee—Shirley P. Austin, Meadville, Pa.

CLASS EMBLEM—IVY.

ONE of the chief characteristics of the old Roman was his "unconquerableness", and the same spirit which animated the dwellers in the Eternal City may achieve a like success for Chautauquans who are willing "to strive, to seek, to find, and not to yield." Many members of '97 have reported for their third year, and belated students are gathering up their forces, determined not to be outdone by their classmates.

CLASS OF 1898.—"THE LANIERS."

"*The humblest life that lives may be divine.*"

OFFICERS.

President—Walter L. Hervey, New York City.

Vice Presidents—Clifford Lanier, Montgomery, Ala.; Dr. W. G. Anderson, New Haven, Conn.; Dr. Richard T. Ely, Madison, Wis.; Dr. J. M. Buckley, New York City; the Rev. Mr. Parker, New Orleans, La.; Miss J. Solomon, South Africa; Miss Elliot Henderson, Montreal, Can.; the Rev. Mr. Chalfont, China; Dr. J. E. Williams, Buffalo, N. Y.; Mrs. Josephine R. Webber, Waltham, Mass.; Dr. J. W. Hartigan, Morgantown, W. Va.

Treasurer and Trustee—The Rev. Mr. Whistler, Kenton, O.

Secretary—Miss Elizabeth Brown, Janesville, Wis.

CLASS FLOWER—VIOLET.

THE membership book for the current year has

one new feature of especial value: it is the little review text-book on American history, based on Professor Judson's large volume and enabling the student to commit to memory dates and outlines at odd times.

CIRCLE members of '98 in Canada write, "We have enjoyed beyond all description the C. L. S. C. study for last year. It brings us in touch with the thinkers of to-day, and gives the mind a grasp on the world we live in."

CLASS OF 1899—"THE PATRIOTS."

"Fidelity, Fraternity."

OFFICERS.

President—The Rev. John C. Martin, New York City.

Vice Presidents—The Rev. Cyrus B. Hatch, McKeesport, Pa., Charles Barnard, New York City; Frank G. Carpenter, Washington, D. C.; John Brown, Chicago, Ill.; Charles A. Carlisle, South Bend, Ind.; Edward Marsden, Alaska; William Ashton, Uxbridge, Eng.; Miss Alice P. Haworth, Osaka, Japan; Miss Frances O. Wilson, Tiensin, China; Mrs. Katharine L. Stevenson, Chicago, Ill.

Secretary—Miss Isabella F. Smart, Brielle, N. J.

Treasurer and Building Trustee—John C. Whiteford, Mexico, N. Y.

CLASS EMBLEMS—THE FLAG AND THE FERN LEAF.

CLASS COLOR—BLUE.

AMONG the many new members added to the class during the past month may be mentioned Professor E. W. Scripture, of Yale University, author of "Thinking, Feeling, Doing," who is a member of a large circle in New Haven.

MR. AND MRS. CHARLES BARNARD, of New York, held a pleasant "at home" for members of

the Class of '99 on Saturday, October 19. A number of members of the class were present, and Mr. and Mrs. Barnard propose to keep up this pleasant custom by reserving the third Saturday afternoon of each month for the members of the class in and about New York.

THE Rev. J. F. Clarke of Bulgaria, who was at Chautauqua during the past season, sent to Bulgarians specimen copies of THE CHAUTAUQUAN and a special letter in behalf of Chautauqua work. This has already resulted in the enrollment of ten members from Bulgaria, the largest enrollment ever made from that country. A medical missionary from Ooroomeeeah, Persia, and additional members from China, India, the West Indies, and England have reported.

GRADUATES.

A GRADUATE of '95, from Alabama, says, "For four years the C. L. S. C. has been the brightest and best part of my life's work. Through trouble, sickness and death of other members of the family, the hurry and bustling of traveling a great deal, and of the cares of everyday life, I have still struggled on, and though a lone reader, it is my hope to graduate with the great Class of '95."

ANOTHER member proposes to pursue the Current History course during the coming year, and writes "I finished my four years' course and mailed my memoranda last week. Although I read under many serious difficulties the last four years, I feel as if I could never be contented to give up my interest in the C. L. S. C."

LOCAL CIRCLES.

C. L. S. C. MOTTOES.

"We Study the Word and the Works of God."

"Let us Keep our Heavenly Father in the Midst."

"Never be Discouraged."

C. L. S. C. MEMORIAL DAYS.

OPENING DAY—October 1.

BRYANT DAY—November 3.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—November, second Sunday.

MILTON DAY—December 9.

FRANKLIN DAY—January 17.

COLLEGE DAY—January, last Thursday.

LANIER DAY—February 3.

LINCOLN DAY—February 12.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—February, second Sunday.

LONGFELLOW DAY—February 27.

SHAKESPEARE DAY—April 23.

MICHAEL ANGELO DAY—May 10.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—May, second Sunday.

HUGH MILLER DAY—June 17.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—July, second Sunday.

INAUGURATION DAY—August, first Saturday after first Tuesday.

ST. PAUL'S DAY—August, second Saturday after first Tuesday.

RECOGNITION DAY—August, third Wednesday after first Tuesday.

WHAT OUR SECRETARIES ARE DOING.

THE general progress of the work in all parts of the field seems to confirm the anticipations that the present year would be one of general activity in C. L. S. C. work.

The plan by which pastors desiring to form circles are provided with as many copies of the Vesper Service as they desire, has been used to advantage in

Springvale, Me. The Rev. W. D. Shumway reports a class of twenty-nine members here; many other pastors have reported circles and others are constantly being heard from. All feel that the work of the American year is of great advantage to church life, and young and old have been enlisted in hundreds of circles.

The Rev. George F. Waters, pastor of the Con-

gregational church of Glastonbury, Conn., has enlisted a wide-awake circle of thirty-four members.

Mr. William G. Lightfoote of Ontario County, N. Y., has aided in the organization of a number of circles, and a large new membership has already been reported from his county. The Vesper Service plan has been used very widely in this state. The Rev. Charles F. Giffin, of the First Methodist church of Mt. Vernon, N. Y., forwarded the names of more than fifty new members for the Class of '99, and others are expected. Another circle of fifty '99's is reported from Newburgh. The Rev. Charles C. Albertson, of Jamestown, reorganized his large circle in that city, and a large enrollment is promised.

Through the efforts of Mr. George H. Lincks, secretary of Hudson County, N. J., the number of new members in his field will probably reach at least one hundred and fifty. A large number of circles have been organized or reorganized for work in Jersey City with a varied membership. At the joint meeting of three circles held early in October, which served the purpose of a rally and brought together a goodly number of Chautauquans, one new circle enrolled thirty-one new members for the Class of '99.

Two county secretaries in Pennsylvania, Judge Noyes of Warren and Mr. F. F. Whittekin of Tionesta, have been uniting their forces in the direction of the organization of new circles.

Miss Rosborough, the secretary for Fairfield County, S. C., has been carrying on a wide correspondence with various leaders in her county, and reports encouraging results.

Miss Bunnie Love, secretary for the South, has been very active in arranging for the C. L. S. C. in connection with the Atlanta Exposition. Bishop Vincent took part in a Chautauqua rally at Atlanta on October 25, and special headquarters have been established at the Exposition.

Dr. J. C. M. Floyd, secretary for Jefferson County, Ohio, has been communicating with all of the Sabbath school superintendents of his county, and is sending them, with other leaflets, a circular of the C. L. S. C. calling attention to its possibilities in connection with Sunday school work.

The Rev. William F. Harding of Terre Haute, Ind., recently has been appointed state secretary for the C. L. S. C. in Indiana. Mr. Harding represented the C. L. S. C. at the Hackley Park Assembly, in southern Michigan, during the past season, and conducted the Round Table work. He has been able to bring Chautauqua work to the attention of many centers of influence in Indiana, and in connection with the conference of Congregational churches, a Y. M. C. A. convention, and a gathering of Baptists, has presented the C. L. S. C. to many pastors and others interested in church work.

Mrs. Kellogg, secretary for Kansas, is editing a C. L. S. C. department in an Ottawa paper which reaches many clubs and other organizations interested in literary work.

Mrs. G. H. Hall of Sparta, Wis., who has been doing good work as district secretary, has secured several new county secretaries, and in some sixteen towns has arranged for Vesper Services.

In Nebraska, Mrs. L. S. Corey, the state secretary, reports a large number of new enrollments, and much work is being done by the county secretaries.

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gregational church of Glastonbury, Conn., has enlisted a wide-awake circle of thirty-four members.

Mr. William G. Lightfoote of Ontario County, N. Y., has aided in the organization of a number of circles, and a large new membership has already been reported from his county. The Vesper Service plan has been used very widely in this state. The Rev. Charles F. Giffin, of the First Methodist church of Mt. Vernon, N. Y., forwarded the names of more than fifty new members for the Class of '99, and others are expected. Another circle of fifty '99's is reported from Newburgh. The Rev. Charles C. Albertson, of Jamestown, reorganized his large circle in that city, and a large enrollment is promised.

Through the efforts of Mr. George H. Lincks, secretary of Hudson County, N. J., the number of new members in his field will probably reach at least one hundred and fifty. A large number of circles have been organized or reorganized for work in Jersey City with a varied membership. At the joint meeting of three circles held early in October, which served the purpose of a rally and brought together a goodly number of Chautauquans, one new circle enrolled thirty-one new members for the Class of '99.

Two county secretaries in Pennsylvania, Judge Noyes of Warren and Mr. F. F. Whittekin of Tionesta, have been uniting their forces in the direction of the organization of new circles.

Miss Rosborough, the secretary for Fairfield County, S. C., has been carrying on a wide correspondence with various leaders in her county, and reports encouraging results.

Miss Bunnie Love, secretary for the South, has been very active in arranging for the C. L. S. C. in connection with the Atlanta Exposition. Bishop Vincent took part in a Chautauqua rally at Atlanta on October 25, and special headquarters have been established at the Exposition.

Dr. J. C. M. Floyd, secretary for Jefferson County, Ohio, has been communicating with all of the Sabbath school superintendents of his county, and is sending them, with other leaflets, a circular of the C. L. S. C. calling attention to its possibilities in connection with Sunday school work.

The Rev. William F. Harding of Terre Haute, Ind., recently has been appointed state secretary for the C. L. S. C. in Indiana. Mr. Harding represented the C. L. S. C. at the Hackley Park Assembly, in southern Michigan, during the past season, and conducted the Round Table work. He has been able to bring Chautauqua work to the attention of many centers of influence in Indiana, and in connection with the conference of Congregational churches, a Y. M. C. A. convention, and a gathering of Baptists, has presented the C. L. S. C. to many pastors and others interested in church work.

Mrs. Kellogg, secretary for Kansas, is editing a C. L. S. C. department in an Ottawa paper which reaches many clubs and other organizations interested in literary work.

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tion papers were ready to send to Buffalo. The circle meets every Thursday afternoon, and it is seldom that anything except illness interferes with a full attendance. The programs are interesting and well carried out, sometimes including discussions on leading questions of the day. In view of the great "International and Cotton States Exposition," which claims much time of the circle members, they proposed to begin the year's work in September instead of waiting until October. The circle planned a Lanier Evening for August 16, to be held in the Chautauqua rooms, when Mr. Clifford Lanier was to be present. There are two other circles in the city.

KENTUCKY.—The class at Bowling Green has reorganized, and there are hopes that another circle may be formed here.

ALABAMA.—Mt. Willing Chautauqua Reading Circle is a band of thirty candidates for the Class of '98, who are preparing to pursue all the work.

TEXAS.—Pilot Point C. L. S. C. has six members. —The Pathfinders at Greenville number thirty-five. —After many failures, a circle has at last been organized at Weatherford that is permanent. Each member is an enthusiast and the class has done excellent work for the year. —Gonzales has a circle of about ten members, which is full of life and enthusiasm.

OHIO.—Reorganization with seven members, is reported by Washington Circle at Toledo, and with thirty-eight members, by the circle at Paulding. —Grand View Circle is a class that, never large, with fluctuating membership and varying fortunes, has resisted dissolution and brought up at the end of the English year with three triumphant members. —The circle at Port Clinton is duly officered. —The circle at Piketon gave a banquet in honor of its '95's. On this occasion a very appreciative "oration in honor of the Class of '95" was given by one of the graduates, in which she rejoices that the truths referred to in the motto, "The truth shall make you free," has been so judiciously dealt with in the C. L. S. C. course as to be placed within the reach of every ambitious person. —Croghan Circle of Fremont sends fifteen names for enrollment. —The class at Wilmington enrolls thirteen names. —The class at Mason enrolls eleven names. —There is a fine class at Norwalk. —A half dozen persons constitute the circle at Sidney.

INDIANA.—Athena C. L. S. C. of Angola kept up its studies the whole year but made no extra effort until Addison Day, when it gave a charming literary entertainment and banquet to a number of invited guests. One of the members offered her home for this occasion. —There are two Chautauqua Circles at Kokomo. The Markland Ave. C. L. S. C. reports regular meetings during its last session. —Athena Circle at Angola and the classes

at Auburn and Churubusco are active organizations.

ILLINOIS.—The Reviewers' Matinee of Mount Carmel, has been doing good work in current events, following in part Chautauqua lines. —The circle at Woodstock has ten members, representing five different classes. The secretary is a graduate of '93, but as she enjoys the review, she enrolled her name at the Monona Lake Assembly for the American year. —Philomatheans at Knox number twenty.

—The president of the circle at Mont Clare, Chicago, has not missed a single meeting for five years. This class is limited to six members for the sake of thorough work, and they all felt well repaid for their efforts and diligent study upon discovering one of their special and one of their working programs among the "model Chautauqua programs" at the World's Fair. In September, '94, the O. A. J. Circle of Chicago was organized with about fifteen members, and has since received five '98's. A circle in Chicago, called the Advance, has four regular members. —At the close of Brighton Circle's fourth session a loyal member of that band and her husband entertained the circle and invited guests to the number of one hundred and ten, at her beautiful home. Extensive and elaborate preparations had been made, including profuse and tasteful floral decorations, orchestral and solo music, and a dainty banquet. The literary program, by the circle, was remarkably creditable, and altogether the occasion was one to inspire respect for the C. L. S. C.

—The circle at Carlinville was represented at the Chautauqua Assembly. It found the last American year a very good introduction to the other work. Its seventeen '95's with one exception completed all the reading for the regular course and that for the white and garnet seals in three years. The one exception did the same work in two years. —Twelve Philomatheans at Galesburg enroll. —Guilford C. L. S. C. of Rockford holds meetings twice a month. It has nine regular members, all doing good work and extracting much enjoyment therefrom. —Danville Local Circle of Pinkstaff has an apt member who reviews the circle work in metrical measure.

MICHIGAN.—A trio at Flowerfield has resumed study. —Chautauquans of the class at Hart are applying themselves with splendid energy in anticipation of a pleasant and profitable year's work.

WISCONSIN.—Chautauquans are at work in Milwaukee. —News is received from a circle of '97's at Stoughton.

MINNESOTA.—The circle at Owatonna "closed a very prosperous year with an elaborate banquet; each member represented an English king and events in English History were discussed. From the first of October to the time of breaking up, not a Monday evening passed without the gathering of the C. L. S. C. Eight members finished the four years'

course this spring, but the circle hopes to get more than eight new members for the year."—There are live circles at Elbow Lake and Glencoe.

IOWA.—There is a circle at Marshalltown called the Chautauqua Maritarium, its members all being married women.—The scribe at Sigourney writes: "Our C.L.S.C. is simply booming. This is the fourth year for the Lotus Club and there are more members, there is more interest than ever before."—Circles Una Voce of Des Moines, Alladen of Wall Lake, and Lowell of Boone, have reorganized.—The Seniors of Corydon have been re-christened the Athenians. All seven of them are very proud of their class. Regularity in attendance is one of their strong points. They all planned to attend the Assembly at Colfax Springs. That this class appreciates the course is shown by the fact that it purposes to continue some one of the lines laid out for postgraduates.—Progressive C. L. S. C. of Creston commenced the year with fourteen members and closed with eighteen; the average attendance for the year was 12½. The secretary continues: "We followed closely, and kept up to date with the lessons and programs as laid down in THE CHAUTAUQUAN, finding them very helpful and interesting. The interest has continually increased, and the work done has been earnest and intelligent." On June 27 the circle members gave an English tea, to which they invited two sister societies. Elaborate preparations had been made to entertain the company on the lawn, pavilions were erected for the artistic serving of refreshments, and the program was to have been given from the porch, which was beautifully decorated; but a sudden storm necessitated a complete change in arrangements. The ladies only won new laurels by their tact in disposing the guests in the parlors, and the entertainment proved a success in every detail, in speeches, music, and banquet. Their respective husbands were entertained in the evening, and did full justice to their portion in the program. The excellent officers elected for the coming year insure the circle's continued and increased prosperity.—After the Vesper Service held September 20, in the Congregational Church of Prairie City, addresses were made in behalf of Chautauqua work, and several persons present expressed a desire to begin the Chautauqua course. Another meeting was to follow soon to perfect arrangements for a circle.

—Vincent Circle No. 1, of Des Moines, finished its two years' study of Shakespeare with a most delightful party given to the class by one of its members. Roll call was answered with appropriate quotations by the members. The fine literary program was followed by a lesson in Shakespearean geography and a game of Shakespearean quotations which had been prepared by the hostess. Too much cannot be said of their originality and cleverness. A beautiful photograph of a noted painting

mounted for framing, was presented to each guest and here a courteous deference was shown, the picture given to each being a scene from her favorite play in Shakespeare. Dainty refreshments followed, appropriate quotations being given with each course.

—The secretary at Rolfe read alone the first two years of her C. L. S. C. work, the third, in a circle of from three to six members, and the fourth in the Rolfe Holmes Ideal Chautauqua Circle. This circle shows an average attendance last year of about fifteen members, all enthusiastic over the work, and its prospects are bright for the coming year.—The circle at Winfield has seventeen members.

MISSOURI.—Several members of Marion Circle at Carthage moved away from the city, leaving the circle quite small, but the remaining members have found the course very enjoyable.—Half of the circle of ten at Lamar have decided to reap the advantages of being enrolled Chautauquans.—Names are received for enrollment from LaBelle.—Beautiful invitations were issued for the annual reception of the Mary De La Vergne C.L.S.C. of Clinton.—The class at Bethany has resumed its studies.—Clio Circle at Springfield held its annual election of officers a full month before the regular C. L. S. C. began work, in order to give plenty of time for sending for the books. The secretary writes: "Clio Circle commenced the new American year with excellent prospects for the best year it has ever had, both in interest and in members. Ten of the eleven who were members last year, will remain in the circle; the other is teaching in another state and may join us later. We received five ladies into our ranks at the annual meeting, and more have since expressed a desire to join us. The membership will, I think, be more than twenty. I have hopes that some who this year are to complete the four years' course, will enroll before the year is out, and thus join the rank and file of the great Chautauqua Army." This circle greatly enjoyed the English year, using a portion, if not all, of the *Suggestive Programs*. In the spring it attended in a body a recital of "Othello," given for the benefit of the high school. About a year ago this circle, consisting of women only, was invited to join the Confederation of Women's Clubs in the town, and of the delegates elected, two were Clios. Each week the secretary of Clio Circle contributes a notice of the program and other circle items to the local paper. Delphian C. L. S. C. also of Springfield sends brief notice of reorganization.

KANSAS.—Historic City Circle of Lawrence has reorganized.—Brief news is received from the class at Independence.

NEBRASKA.—Chaucer C. L. S. C. of Beaver resumes work with a membership of twenty-eight, which promises soon to exceed thirty. Six of the members are graduates of the Class of '93. The

literary outlook of the circle is exceedingly bright.

SOUTH DAKOTA.—A fine circle of ten members is reported by the secretary at Vermillion.

COLORADO.—Silver Queen Circle of Georgetown did very good work on the English year. It held one special meeting every month at each of which one of Shakespeare's historical plays was read. The parts were assigned several weeks ahead so that there was time for their preparation. The class also read Tennyson's "Harold" and "Queen Mary," and made a special study of English literature. The graduates were taking the French History and Literature seal course.

CALIFORNIA.—Chautauquans of Epworth Circle, Los Angeles, hold their circle meetings once a week, and three times last year parlor lectures were given; at one of these they had a miniature Hall in the Grove, which proved a great success. They hope this winter to unite the circles of Pasadena, Romona, and Riverside. The circle at Manzanita is twenty-seven miles from a railroad. It consists of fifteen members, very busy people, some of whom go from two to five miles to the meetings. All in the circle are loyal and studious. Central Circle of San Francisco has resumed its studies with earnestness. The circle at San José has bright prospects for the year's work. Its members are duly enrolled, and meetings will be held regularly.

MONTANA.—Lewistown Chautauqua Circle reports weekly meetings. They were regularly attended and with the interest and hard work they elicited, were a source of pleasure to all. The circle observed Shakespeare, Milton, and Wordsworth Days, preparing special papers for them, and their visitors were well pleased with the results. Circle members were abreast with the work and the Current History and Opinion; several memoranda were returned on the latter as well as the regular course, which the graduates are reviewing. The secretary concludes: "We are pleased with our circle, and feel that the work has been profitable in a degree that it is hard to estimate, for we have few advantages that towns and cities located on railroads have, and the social and intellectual benefits we have had since forming the circle, are particularly appreciated by us." An infusion of new life in the circle is expected in the way of new members.

WASHINGTON.—Vincent Circle of Tacoma ushers in the new C. L. S. C. year with a force of fourteen members. All are united in their efforts to make the meetings a success.

"THE C. N. E. C. PRIZES."

At the end of the "Chautauqua New Education in the Church" course of study at Chautauqua last summer a rigid written examination was conducted. Twenty-four papers which occupied from two to five hours in the writing were presented. The Chancellor has just completed the careful examination of the twenty-four papers, and selecting numbers "7," "3" and "13" as the best, awards the promised prizes to the persons whose names were found in sealed envelopes numbered respectively "7," "3" and "13." Number "seven" reached 105 merit marks, number "three" 177, number "thirteen," which wins the highest prize, reached 204 merit marks. Opening the envelopes after this decision was reached, it was found that the highest prize—the gold medal presented by Mr. and Mrs. E. T. Lovatt of Tarrytown, N. Y.—goes to Mrs. E. H. Howe, Converse, Ind.; the second prize, number "three" reaching 177 merit marks goes to Alexander Henry, Frankford, Philadelphia, Pa.; the third prize, number "seven" 105 merit marks, goes to Mrs. L. R. Hervey, Mound Street, Cincinnati, O.

The C. N. E. C. movement is being gradually developed. Chancellor Vincent has associated with himself several of the foremost educators—public school, college and university men—in the working out of this advanced and progressive plan for stimulating and aiding parents, Sunday-school teachers, young ministers and others in the application of the most thorough methods of modern education to biblical, doctrinal and ethical teaching.

RIDGEVIEW PARK, PA., ASSEMBLY.

RIDGEWAY PARK ASSEMBLY had a thoroughly successful session and an attendance better than that of last year. August 17, Recognition Day, was the climacteric point. Though only one graduate was present, the full program, as sent out by the C. L. S. C. office, was observed. Judge A. D. McConnell was the speaker of the day.

A normal school of methods and kindergarten training school attracted large numbers of teachers. Rev. W. C. Weaver, Ph.D., is superintendent of instruction as well president of the Assembly.

The leading lecturers were Fred C. Iglehart of New York City, Andrew J. Fish, D.D., of Toledo, O., and A. W. Hawks of Baltimore, Md. Entertainments were given by the Hadyn Concert Company, Soto Sunetaro, and A. Lincoln Kirk.

Enthusiastic Round Tables were influential in forming a fair-sized Class of '99.

TALK ABOUT BOOKS.

A SPECIAL effort has been made this month to give our readers a glimpse of the holiday books sent out by the leading publishing houses. Such an array of dainty bindings, fine engravings, and choice literature as the publishers offer will surely satisfy the most fastidious book lover.

The Art of Living.

That living is really an art, the reader is convinced after perusing this new book by Robert Grant.* He tells us that "no civilization which regards the blessings and comforts of refined living as unworthy to be striven for and appropriated can hope to promote the cause of humanity." That these may be obtained he shows in a series of papers on income, the house and its furnishings, education, occupation, how to employ time, the problem of the summer vacation, the case of man, the aspirations of woman, and the conduct of life, subjects made doubly interesting by the quiet humor expressed throughout the series. The exquisite binding, clear type, fine paper, apt and abundant illustrations, make this a handsome volume which would adorn any library.

Fiction.

The first story in a collection of six tales, by Gertrude Hall, is entitled "Foam of the Sea."† It is a strange, weird and highly imaginative production. Throughout the other stories, the expressions of fear, hatred, love and joy are much more rational, which make it a not altogether unreadable book.

"My Honey"‡ or Miss Hetty is a young girl of sixteen left by her dissipated father to the care of a young man whose acquaintance he had made several years before, and who seemed much interested in his little daughter. The young man about to start for India leaves the girl with his father. The development of Miss Hetty's character during his absence, and the growth of their love, form the principal part of this simple, yet pleasing story.

"All Men are Liars" || is the startling title of a recent novel by Joseph Hocking. It is the story of a youth who begins his life work full of hope and faith in humanity in spite of the teachings of his cynical uncle and tutor. The dishonest bankruptcy of his uncle, and the conduct of his wife, who married simply for money, cause the "disillusionment" of

the young man, and he, now a pessimist, drowns his sorrows in the wine cup. The third and last part of this story portrays in the same easy style the manner in which this really noble youth was rescued and brought back to faith in God and humanity.

A new edition of that splendid historical romance, "The Scottish Chiefs,"* appears in two volumes with a beautiful green and gold binding and gilt top. A revision of the punctuation has been made and it includes the author's retrospective preface and the appendices, besides many illustrations showing the scenes where the events of this romance took place.

"The Second Jungle Book"† closes the Mowgli stories bringing Mowgli back to the Man Pack at the age of seventeen. Of the eight stories contained in this volume three are in no way concerned with Mowgli but in the others all the peculiar characters so much admired in the first "Jungle Book" reappear invested with the same fascinating mystery which made the people of the Jungle and their laws so charming to young and old. The first story tells why the Man Pack is feared by the inhabitants of the Indian forest and why the Tiger always wears his stripes, while the last takes us into the northern region with its dreary waste of moss and lichen. Each sketch is followed by ballads and preceded by bits of taking verse, and throughout the volume are appropriate decorations.

Another story in the dialect style is "Unc' Edinburg."‡ While it tells a romance connected with a Christmas celebration on a Virginia plantation in the days of slavery it illustrates the mutual affection of master and slave.

The Christmas party given by a bachelor to his old maid and bachelor friends so lucidly described by Robert Grant in "The Bachelor's Christmas and Other Stories"|| is not without its touch of romance. "An Eye for an Eye" is the sad recital of how a young man's prospects were blighted by the perjury of one who had been wronged by him. Into each of the four succeeding stories which complete this collection are woven bits of romance and humor in the pleasant style which makes the writings of this author so charming.

Bound in bright yellow cloth, with the table of

*The Scottish Chiefs. By Jane Porter. Two vols. 367+355 pp. \$3.00. New York and Boston: Thomas Y. Crowell and Company.

†The Second Jungle Book. By Rudyard Kipling. 324 pp. \$1.50. New York: The Century Company.

‡"Unc' Edinburg." A Plantation Echo. By Thomas Nelson Page. Illustrated by B. West Clinedinst. 53 pp. \$1.50.

—|| The Bachelor's Christmas and Other Stories. By Robert Grant. Illustrated by C. D. Gibson, I. R. Wiles, A. B. Wenzell, and C. Carleton. 309 pp. \$1.50. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

*The Art of Living. By Robert Grant. Illustrated by C. D. Gibson, B. West Clinedinst, and W. H. Hyde. 353 pp. \$2.50. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

†Foam of the Sea and Other Tales. By Gertrude Hall. 302 pp. \$1.00.—‡My Honey. By the Author of "Miss Toosey's Mission." 352 pp.—|| "All Men are Liars." A novel. By Joseph Hocking. 418 pp. \$1.50. Boston: Roberts Brothers.

contents printed neatly on the back cover, are half a dozen stories by Emile Zola,*—"Jacques Damour," "Madame Neigeon," "Muntas," "How We Die," "The Coqueville Spree" and "The Attack on the Mill"—translated into English by William Foster Apthorp.

Just a baker's dozen of tales of New England life combined under the title "Meadow-Grass"† is a collection of stories whose uniform excellence is surprising as well as unusual. They are all short and pertain to the simple folk of Tiverton. The author who has recently come into notice by her stories and poetry published in magazines has a most charming way of mingling humor and pathos. Even in the most tragic stories, "Nancy Boyd's Last Sermon" and "Told in the Poor House" or in the pathetic tale of the "Bankrupt," humor comes in to relieve it of gloom. While in the most humorous, as "Farmer Eli's Vacation," there is something almost pathetic in the unwillingness of Farmer Eli to camp on the ocean beach, suggesting at the same time in the inimitable style of this author, the grandeur of the ocean. There is throughout the collection, the quiet unobtrusive suggestion of truths and morals which is quite refreshing.

In "The Chronicles of Count Antonio"‡ a monk narrates in quaint, unimpassioned style the exploits of a young nobleman, who because of his love of the Lady Lucia, falls into disfavor with the ruling duke, and is compelled to spend five years of brigandish life in the mountains. The story has much of the power of the "Prisoner of Zenda," and gives promise of even better things from this popular author.

"The Red Badge of Courage"§ is an episode of the American Civil War. It portrays the struggles of a youth against the feelings of fear which possess him when the first battle is imminent, his flight from the first engagement, and the subsequent brave deeds which atoned for this one mistake and in a measure quieted the remorse of conscience.

After the massacre of the English at Cawnpore, India, during the sepoy mutiny, the only person of English parentage remaining in the territory is a little babe cared for by a servant, Tooni, until seven years of age when he is summoned to the court of the Maharajah at Lalpore, to be a companion of the prince, Moti. Upon the return of the English a few years after, the youth escapes from the walled city, joins the English and is restored to his father. Such is "The Story of Sonny Sahib"§ as narrated by Mrs. Everard Cotes.

* Jacques Damour. By Emile Zola. Englished by William Foster Apthorp. 369 pp.—† Meadow-Grass. Tales of New England Life. By Alice Brown. 315 pp. \$1.50. Boston: Copeland and Day.

‡ The Chronicles of Antonio. By Anthony Hope. 331 pp. \$1.50. New York: D. Appleton and Company.

§ The Red Badge of Courage. By Stephen Crane. 238 pp. \$1.00.—§ The Story of Sonny Sahib. By Mrs. Everard Cotes

"Majesty"* is a study of life in the court circles of the European continent. The characters, of which there are a large number, are skillfully drawn, and by the numerous vivacious conversations which take place reveal their strength and weakness. The sturdy character of the Emperor contrasts strongly with the weak hesitating nature of the Crown Prince Othomar whose dread of becoming the Emperor all but overpowers him. The story is full of action, and follows the life of the Crown Prince through his courtship and marriage, closing with the assassination of the Emperor and the coronation of Othomar.

In the historical novel "Standish of Standish"† the author brings out clearly the facts of history. The landing of the Pilgrims, the sickness and hardships of that first winter, the encounters with the Indians, the famine, and the first Thanksgiving celebrations are all brought in rapid review and made more thrilling by the sweet and tender romance with which they are interwoven by the skilful pen of the author. The reader sees the living forms of John Carver and William Bradford, and renews his acquaintance with the courageous "Captain Myles Standish" who voluntarily accompanied this band of exiles, and by skill and daring saved the little colony from extinction, yet was not brave enough to face a woman's "No"; with John Alden who pleaded so eloquently for his friend; and with sweet Priscilla, whose "Why don't you speak for yourself, John?" has furnished a subject for so many artists. The illustrator has skillfully aided the author in making these scenes a living reality and the thoughtful reader can but be stirred anew by the nobility, virtue, and courage of our forefathers as depicted in this story.

Several entertaining short stories by Sarah Orne Jewett, bound in a single volume is entitled "The Life of Nancy."‡ The first shows how in a condition of physical helplessness one can be happy, and the second, "Fame's Little Day," is an amusing account of how a simple news item increased the self esteem of two plain old people. Each of the succeeding stories is equally interesting and well written.

Poetry. Of the many bright flowers of poesy that the publishers have culled for their holiday garland, few are fairer or more fragrance-breathing than the dainty, blossom sprinkled, pink

(Sara Jeannette Duncan). 122 pp. \$1.00.—* Majesty. A Novel. By Louis Couperus. Translated by A. Teixeira de Mattos and Ernest Dowson. 428 pp. \$1.00. New York: D. Appleton and Company.

† Standish of Standish. A Story of the Pilgrims. By Jane Goodwin Austin. Illustrated by Frank T. Merrill. Two vols. 212 + 210 pp.—‡ The Life of Nancy. By Sarah Orne Jewett. 322 pp. \$1.25. Boston and New York: Houghton, Mifflin and Company.

and white volume called "Rhymes and Roses."* Open where you will, you are met by rippling rhyme and tripping meter that carry you lightly with them over pages lit by Nature's sweetest and brightest smiles and love's most cheering radiance. If the versifier's art appears in the framing of these rare little word pictures, the soul of the true poet shines through the color blending; for none but a poet would have caught and held in his heart so much of nature's airy freshness, so much of humanity's tender winsomeness. To all lovers of pure, sparkling fancy set in polished verse, "Rhymes and Roses" will prove a feast.

When one translates one hundred and fifty German poems into English, it is because one loves them, and work so loyally done cannot fail to meet something of success. Such success in fair measure rewards the efforts of Kate Freiligrath Kroeker on "A Century of German Lyrics."† While in general, as is true of almost all translated verse, it is not well to compare these renditions with the originals, in several cases, notably those poems of a weird, supernatural character, as the "Gypsy Song," "The Knotted Stick," and "The Message," the translator has caught the original spirit and tone most delightfully; and to all who must gain their knowledge of German literature at second hand, this prettily bound little volume will serve as a pleasant and helpful introduction to the poets of *das Vaterland*.

"From Dreamland Sent,"‡ the title that graces a pretty booklet in white and pale green, seems to speak of slumberous fancies and youth's long, long thoughts, rocked in the brain to the music of summer rains and the twilight twitter of birds; and something of this character throughout the poems makes one feel the application of the name. But there are other elements in these well written verses which appeal more strongly to the human heart; there is in the thought that strength in weakness betokening "the ever womanly," and, better still, a sympathetic human touch, an insight born of love and sorrow, which will bring the quick, responsive tears to many a reader's eyes, and will make these little waifs from dreamland favorites where profounder thoughts in more perfect dress would fail to please.

"The Viol of Love,"§ resplendent in holiday attire of green richly overlaid with gilt, pleads its own cause in one of the best poems, "The Viol to the Songs," and the poet's hope, voiced in the lines,

"For surely they who love will listen
And give my errant songs a home,"

will doubtless be fulfilled in the many who will

appreciate and enjoy these graceful little love lyrics.

E. Pauline Johnson, the gifted young Indian princess of whom Canada is justly proud, has given us in "The White Wampum"¶ a book that is truly artistic in the peculiar fitness of its cover-design and title-page decoration. But this is the least of its merits, for Miss Johnson is a poet of unusual ability, and infuses all she writes with a wonderful charm and individuality to which none who read this book of Indian verse can be insensible.

"Elsie and Other Poems,"‡ in dark blue, gilt-lettered cover, has a wholesome, homelike look quite in keeping with its subject matter; for a glance down the contents page shows one that the poet's themes, almost without exception, have been chosen from the ways and walks of everyday life—and very pleasant and charming ways they are, as portrayed in Mr. Hale's clever verse, with just enough of life's pathos interwoven to temper the sunshine aright.

The sonnet is acknowledged a difficult form of verse, and few there be that dare to tread its devious ways, so, when a book appears avowedly given over to this and kindred forms, one is curious to know how far its author is justified in scorning the humbler paths of verse-making. In "Philoctetes and Other Poems and Sonnets"‡ there is so much that is good that the little red volume seems, like beauty, its own excuse for being.

It is fitting that our poetry list should end with the valuable contribution to literature which E. C. Stedman makes in his "Victorian Anthology."|| Accustomed as we are to regard any critical or editorial work to which Mr. Stedman turns his attention as beyond the reach of all cavil, it will be sufficient to say of this compilation of extracts from British poets that it is a perfect and complete supplement to "Victorian Poets," and as such will spring at once into the highest favor.

Among the holiday books for the young, "Dogs Great and Small" and "Cats and Kittens"§ easily take the lead. Each contains numerous full-page pictures after paintings in water colors by Frederick J. Boston, which show a degree of perfection in color quite rare in a reproduction. These with the artistic decorative borders, and new stories by Elizabeth S. Tucker make two volumes which will please the fancy of every child.

\$1.50.—The White Wampum. By E. Pauline Johnson. 88 pp. \$1.50. Boston: Lamson, Wolfe and Company.

‡ Elsie and Other Poems. By Robert Beverly Hale. 104 pp.

\$1.00. Boston: R. B. Hale and Company.

‡ Philoctetes and Other Poems and Sonnets. By J. E. Nesmeth. 111 pp.—|| A Victorian Anthology. By Edmund Clarence Stedman. 744 pp. Boston and New York: Houghton, Mifflin and Company.

§ Dogs Great and Small. 34 pp. \$2.50.—Cats and Kittens. 34 pp. \$1.50. Stories and Verse by Elizabeth S. Tucker.—

* Rhymes and Roses. By Samuel Minturn Peck. 186 pp. \$1.00.—† A Century of German Lyrics. Selected, arranged and translated by Kate Freiligrath Kroeker. 225 pp. \$1.00. New York: Frederick A. Stokes Company.

‡ From Dreamland Sent. By Lillian Whiting. 133 pp. \$1.25. Boston: Roberts Brothers.

|| The Viol of Love. By Charles Newton-Robinson. 56 pp.

"The Enchanted Butterflies"* is a fairy tale done up in dainty binding with exquisite illustrations by Mrs. S. H. Clark and the author.

"A Last Century Maid,"† as represented in the artistic frontispiece, is a little Friend. Her experience with the Indians and the stories told her will delight the hearts of the children as well as some of the older people. Bound in the same volume are four other stories of children who found greatest delight in making others happy. Little Maggie, the sunbeam of a lonely prisoner's life, is a particularly winsome little maid, and no boy has ever spent a merrier Christmas than Roy, who helped a poor newsboy to obtain a Christmas feast.

A delightful fable for children tells of the experiences of a runaway dog, Frowzie,‡ who was stolen by a boy and sold to a hand-organ man for a trick dog. While staying with his new master he becomes acquainted with Jakey and a little girl stolen from her parents. The conversations between the animals are not less interesting than those between the children, and the young folks must feel after reading this story that their pets are capable of expressing much emotion.

An interesting little girl is Comfort Pease|| whose gold ring causes her to disobey and deceive her mother but whose conscience finally wins the victory, bringing its consequent reward of peace of mind and approval of friends.

A touching story is that of "Dear Little Marchioness,"§ told by one who cared for the sick during the yellow fever epidemic in Memphis. The beauty and charm of the little marchioness and the tender hearted old colored man, with their mutual affection, forcibly remind the reader of "Uncle Tom" and "Eva."

A new edition of "Half a Dozen Boys"¶ appears in a neat binding, with pleasing illustrations. It is an everyday story for everyday people, and the lively sextet are "real boys," kindly and virtuous, but not without faults.—Three lively lads are the three apprentices, John, Johnnie, and Jack.** They are constantly getting into mischief but their keen wit and good nature usually prevent serious results. The illustrators have shown

their appreciation of the ludicrous.—"Chilhowee Boys in War Time"* is a story of the trials and bravery of the boys of 1812 who were too young to take up arms in defense of the country. The characters are well drawn and the story is full of life which will attract all lovers of spirited stories.

"Jack Alden"† is a story of adventures in the Civil War during the Virginia campaign. The author accurately describes the passage of the Sixth Massachusetts Regiment through Baltimore, and gives thrilling accounts of actual battles and daring acts during the war. The story contains many lessons of bravery and patriotism.

The adventures and observations of two New York boys who spent a winter in Florida is the theme of a bright attractive book entitled "The Ocala Boy."‡ The illustrator has helped to make a vivid impression of the country by his representation of scenes in and about Ocala.

Young people generally will read with delight the story of "The Impostor."|| It is a college romance and begins with a football game. The plottings, misunderstandings, and air of mystery surrounding the Impostor are so skillfully interwoven that the reader's interest is held until the final happy dénouement. In the same volume are several short interesting stories by the same author.

Miscellaneous. A collection of twelve letters§ written

by Stark Munro to his former school-mate and friend, Herbert Swanborough, of Lowell, Massachusetts, forms a volume neatly bound in red, printed in clear type on fine paper and containing a half dozen full page illustrations. The different parts of this unusually interesting series of letters are so connected in thought that the reader gains a very full knowledge of the troubles, thoughts and feelings experienced by a young man just beginning his chosen profession. It is written in the clear simple style of a friendly correspondence, and the reader's interest is sustained to the end by the humorous and at times almost pathetic recitals of the young physician always looking on the bright side in his battle with stern necessity.

Two Spanish dramas translated into English and bound in a single volume are "The Great Galeoto"

*The Enchanted Butterflies. By Adelaide Upton Crosby. 60 pp. New York: Frederick A. Stokes Company.

†A Last Century Maid and Other Stories for Children. By Anne Hollingworth Wharton. 203 pp. \$1.50. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company.

‡Frowzie the Runaway. A Fable for Children. By Lily F. Wesselhoeft. With illustrations by Jessie McDermott. 320 pp. Boston: Robert Brothers.

|| Comfort Pease and Her Gold Ring. By Mary E. Wilkins. 44 pp. 30 cts. New York and Chicago: Fleming H. Revell Company.

§Dear Little Marchioness. The Story of a Child's Faith and Love. Introduction by Bishop Gailor. Illustrated by W. L. Taylor. 60 pp. \$1.00.—¶Half a Dozen Boys. An Everyday Story. By Anna Chapin Ray. 318 pp. \$1.50.—**The Three

Apprentices of Moon Street. From the French of Georges Montorgueil. Illustrated by Louis Le Réverend and Paul Steck. 317 pp. \$1.50.—*Chilhowee Boys in War Time. By Sarah E. Morrison. 383 pp. \$1.50.—†Jack Alden. A Story of Adventures in the Virginia Campaigns '61-'65. By Warren Lee Goss. 402 pp. \$1.50. New York and Boston: T. Y. Crowell and Company.

‡The Ocala Boy. A Story of Florida Town and Forest. By Maurice Thompson. 225 pp. \$1.00.—||The Impostor. A Football and College Romance. By Charles Remington Talbot. 405 pp. \$1.50. Boston: Lothrop Publishing Company.

§The Stark-Munro Letters. Edited and arranged by A. Conan Doyle. 391 pp. \$1.50. New York: D. Appleton and Company.

and "Folly or Saintliness."* In both woman is represented as an ideal, and an object of unwearying adoration. There is a noticeable lack of humor and less attention is given to the development of character than to striking situations, in which both abound. The former is by far the stronger of the two and portrays the attempt of husband and wife to aid the son of an old friend. This is made a subject for town gossips who misconstrue the interest of the wife, and popular opinion really causes the death of the husband, a broken-hearted, wilfully deceived old man. It gives a strong lesson to those who habitually indulge in the habit of slander.

Two attractive volumes in blue covers with gilt tops are "Literary Shrines" and "A Literary Pilgrimage"† the first containing pleasing pen pictures of haunts made memorable by the presence of famous American authors and the latter giving descriptions and pleasant reminiscences of the homes and favorite resorts of English authors from the time of Chaucer to the present. Both volumes are illustrated with several full-page photogravures.

"Famous Leaders among Women"‡ is another of the inspiring biographies, written in the bright, pleasant style of the author of the Famous Book series. She selects the subject for these sketches from the last three centuries—Madame de Maintenon, Catherine II. of Russia, Madame Le Brun, Dolly Madison, Catherine Booth, Lucy Stone, Lady Somerset, and Queen Victoria,—and they furnish one of the most charming productions of this series.

The remarks of a loquacious man just returned from South Africa, and who wishes to be popular in London society are given in a volume called, "Select Conversations with an Uncle."§ His opinions on art, from mural decorations to the culinary artist's "Nocturnes, Symphonies, Picnics," etc., on the bicycle, tricycle, fashion, and social subjects, are certainly highly original and not without humor.

"The secret of writing a good letter is to make the life rich and to pour the riches of life into one's letters." So says the author of an entertaining and helpful work on letter writing,§ and this statement is proved by extracts in the first part from the letters of noted people. The second part is a compilation of "characteristic letters" by characteristic people.

Part second of Longman's Music Course¶ is a

* The Great Galeoto and Folly or Saintliness. By José Echegaray. Translated by Hannah Lynche. 210 pp. Boston: Lamson, Wolfe and Company.

† Literary Shrines. 222 pp.—A Literary Pilgrimage. 260 pp. \$1.25 each. By Theodore F. Wolfe, M. D., Ph. D., Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company.

‡ Famous Leaders Among Women. By Sarah K. Bolton. 360 pp. \$1.50. New York and Boston: T. Y. Crowell and Company.

§ Select Conversations with an Uncle. By H. G. Wells. 200 pp. \$1.25. New York: The Merriam Company.

¶ Charm and Courtesy in Letter-writing. By Frances Bennett Callaway. 250 pp. \$1.00. New York: Dodd, Mead and Company.

¶ Longman's Music Course. Part II. Harmony and Counter-

point with Exercises. By T. H. Bertenshaw, B. A., B. Mus. New York: Longmans, Green and Co.

What makes a Friend? ¶ This question Volney Streamer attempts to answer by a compilation of more than one hundred different definitions and opinions from different sources. This with its companion volume, "In Friendship's Name,"† in its seventh edition, printed in clear type, and containing equally as many quotations from standard authors, makes a valuable compendium on the subject of friendship.

Among the numerous holiday editions, none are more beautiful than "The Story of the Other Wise Man."‡ It is finely illustrated and vividly describes how the fourth Wise Man, also seeing the star in the east, "set out to follow it; his great desire, how it was denied, yet accomplished in its denial; his many wanderings, the long way of his seeking and the strange way of finding the One whom he sought."

An ideal way of spending a few months in idleness and at the same time storing away treasures of memories, is delightfully described in "Little Rivers"§ a collection of almost a dozen "Essays in Profitable Idleness." The reader is taken to the Highlands of Scotland, the home of romance, by "A Handful of Heather." "Au Large" shows him the country traversed by the Canadian voyageur, and "A Leaf or Spearmint" recalls the experiences of boyhood. Each essay is prefaced by a particularly apt quotation, and the volume abounds in bright thoughts which with the abundant illustrations and unique binding, make this a very desirable book.

The old childish curiosity, which remains with the best of us, to know just how great people live, is satisfied anew by Anna L. Bicknell in "Life in the Tuileries under the Second Empire."§ In this exquisitely printed, well illustrated book, Napoleon II., the beautiful but frivolous Eugénie, the idolized Prince Imperial, and many of their household attachés are introduced to us as familiar acquaintances. Read with interest we must, and with profit in so far as an insight into the causes of failure in another's life helps us to better our own.

A most delightful and easy way to visit foreign lands is by the many books of travel now published. One of the most entertaining of these is a collection

point with Exercises. By T. H. Bertenshaw, B. A., B. Mus. New York: Longmans, Green and Co.

¶ What makes a Friend. ¶ In Friendship's Name. Compiled by Volney Streamer. 112 pp. each. Boston: Lamson, Wolfe, and Company.

‡ The Story of the Other Wise Man. By Henry Van Dyke. 84 pp. New York: Harper and Brothers.

§ Little Rivers. By Henry Van Dyke. 291 pp. \$2.00. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

§ Life in the Tuileries Under the Second Empire. By Anna L. Bicknell. 279 pp. \$2.25. New York: The Century Co.

of sketches by Miss Woolson* which takes the reader to Mentone, Cairo, Corfu, and the Ionian Sea. The large number of fine illustrations showing the picturesque beauty of the country, the different types of people, their dwellings and monuments, add charm to the already vivid pictures of the author's pen, and make this volume one of the models of the book-maker's art.

"A Wastrel Redeemed,"† in the dainty binding of the Renaissance Booklets, is a story forcibly told of a Scotch youth's wasted opportunities, his final redemption, as the reward of faith and love.

In striking contrast to "A Wastrel Redeemed" is another of the same series, "A Day's Time-Table,"‡ a well written story of a young girl who by using every opportunity according to the direction of a time-table supernaturally revealed to her, learned "that to live in the will of God is the secret of having a day of heaven on earth."

The resemblance between the experience of a Christian in his dependence upon God and that of a traveler among the Alps in his dependence upon the care of his mountain guide is delicately suggested by Reverend Parkhurst in his allegory "The Swiss Guide."§

A new edition of the International series of Bibles, called the Self-Pronouncing Edition,§ contains many improvements which make it especially useful to Bible students whose library of ready reference is limited. The pronunciation of all the difficult proper names is indicated throughout the text and fully one third of the book is devoted to the "Bible Reader's Aids" containing articles by eminent divines both in this country and Great Britain, on topics of practical interest to Christian workers. These aids include articles on the use of the Bible in the Sunday school and at home; the construction and history of its text; the chronology and history of the Bible; and its geography, geology and ethnology. An important feature of this edition is the "Word Book" in which is arranged in alphabetical order a long list of words under each of which is given all its meanings as used in the Bible. It is really index, concordance, and gazetteer combined and comprises nearly two thirds of the aids.

For a fuller announcement of books and a more complete description of fall and winter literature, see pages 217-256 of the present number of THE CHAUTAUQUAN.

*Mentone, Cairo, and Corfu. By Constance Fenimore Woolson. 360 pp. New York: Harper and Brothers.

†A Wastrel Redeemed. By David Lyall. 36 pp. 30 cts.—
‡A Day's Time-Table, or Louis Emerson's "Gospel of Guidance." By E. S. Elliott. 66 pp. 30 cts.—
§The Swiss Guide. By Rev. C. H. Parkhurst, D.D. 31 pp. 30 cts. New York and Chicago: Fleming H. Revell Company.

§The International Bible Series, Self-Pronouncing Edition. New York: International Agency.

BOOKS RECEIVED.

- D. APPLETON AND COMPANY, NEW YORK.
Hoffman, Walter James, M.D. The Beginnings of Writing. \$1.75.
Broughton, Rhoda. Scylla or Charybdis? A Novel. 50 cts.
McLellan, James A., A.M., LL.D. and Dewey, John, Ph.D. The Psychology of Number and its Applications to Methods of Teaching Arithmetic. \$1.50.
Hotchkiss, Chauncey C. In Defiance of the King: A Romance of the American Revolution. 50 cts.
White, Percy. Corruption: A Novel. \$1.25.
Hunt, Violet. A Hard Woman: A Story in Scenes. \$1.25.
Cobbin, J. Maclaren. The King of Andaman: A Saviour of Society. 50 cts.
Butterworth, Hezekiah. The Knight of Liberty: A Tale of the Fortunes of Lafayette. \$1.50.
FOWLER & WELLS CO., NEW YORK.
Sizer, Nelson. How to Study Strangers by Temperament, Face, and Head.
FUNK & WAGNALLS COMPANY, NEW YORK.
Crafts, Rev. Wilbur F., Ph.D. Practical Christian Sociology. \$1.50.
GINN & COMPANY, BOSTON.
Tompkins, Arnold. The Philosophy of School Management. 85 cts.
Van Dyke, Henry. Responsive Readings. Selected from the Bible.
Levermore, Charles H., Ph.D. assisted by Frederic Reddall. The Academy Song Book.
Russell, Israel C. Lakes of North America. \$1.65.
Taylor, Thomas Wardlaw, Jr., M.A. The Individual and the State: An Essay on Justice. 80 cts.
White, Horace. Money and Banking: Illustrated by American History. \$1.50.
Stryker, M. Woolsey, D.D., LL.D. The Letter of James the Just. 60 cts.
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE, WASHINGTON.
Wright, Carroll D. The Housing of the Working People. Eighth Special Report of the Commissioner of Labor.
S. C. GRIEGGS AND COMPANY, CHICAGO.
Fisher, Mary. Twenty-five Letters on English Authors. \$1.50.
THE HOTEL WORLD, CHICAGO.
Green, Mary E., M. D. Food Products of the World.
HOUGHTON, MIFFLIN AND COMPANY, BOSTON AND NEW YORK.
Gordon, George A. The Christ of To-Day. \$1.50.
Griffis, William Elliot. Townsend Harris: First American Envoy in Japan. \$2.00.
J. W. HOWELL, BELLAIRE, OHIO.
Pronounit: A New and Popular Educational Game. 35 cts.
LONGMANS, GREEN, AND CO., NEW YORK.
Elliot, George. Silas Marner. Edited with notes and an introduction by Robert Herrick.
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SILVERWARE. FRAUDULENT AND RELIABLE.

MR. ROBERT LOUIS STEVENSON in one of his charming essays tells the story of an Edinburgh grocer, dealing in wine in a small way, who made himself conspicuous at some great wine-sale by buying up all the broken lots—small quantities of dozens of different kinds. One of his friends visited him soon afterwards, curious to know what he wanted with such a heterogeneous collection of odds and ends, and found him mixing together in a great vat all the different brands, from “humble Gladstone to imperial Tokay.” The visitor was naturally astonished. “But what do you expect to get out of that?” “I’m no sure,” replied the cautious grocer, “but I do be thinking it will turn out port.”

Not the least amusing aspect of this apologue is the fact that the canny Scotchman evidently knew by experience that were his surprising mixture duly bottled and properly labeled it might as well be port as far as his customers were concerned. For we modern folk who pride ourselves upon being so sophisticated are really very easily humbugged. The grocer’s method of procedure could be paralleled in a different business in any city of the United States to-day: given, a little—a very little—silver, some solder or brass, as calculating unscrupulousness on the part of the manufacturer and a guileless public, these ingredients will produce and are constantly producing “silver” ware *ad libitum* of all descriptions. It is enough to make the patient old alchemists, who toiled and

moiled and starved in their ceaseless but futile attempts to transmute some baser metal into the ruddy gold or the pale luna—it is enough to make these slaves to the lust of gain uneasy in their graves to perceive how simple and obvious a solution has been discovered of the great problem on which they spent their lives.

THE FALSIFYING OF SILVER STAMPS.

The assertion that this species of deception is actively practiced is not based upon any theory as to man’s natural depravity but upon the result of an agitation originating with the Connecticut Jewelers’ Association, and quickly joined by similar organizations, there having been a general suspicion among manufacturers of silverware that the “Sterling” jewelry and tableware retailed by these dealers was Sterling only in name. Even the initiated, however, were surprised by the disclosure of systematic fraud, the full extent of which will probably never be known. Of course, to be of any value such a test must be above the shadow of reproach; any faintest idea of partiality or of an interest in discrediting the articles examined would quite nullify its usefulness, so various pieces stamped as sterling silver were purchased at different department and dry goods stores and were taken to the United States Assay Office, at whose verdict none could cavil. The report was almost incredible: out of thirty-two specimens submitted (all stamped “sterling,” remember) only one contained the .925 of real silver which by legal defini-

tion constitute sterling ware; the remaining thirty-one were all below the standard, most of them being brass or solder on which a thin shell of silver had been deposited by electroplating, and some of them had actually not a grain of silver in their composition!

THE NECESSITY FOR GENERAL LAWS.

According to a state law passed over a year ago the sale on such goods falsely stamped constitutes a misdemeanor, yet it is evident that the statute, however precise and direct in its provisions, is of little avail if not rigidly enforced, and that this is the true state of affairs the above exposition shows most plainly. Strenuous efforts are being made to obtain a United States law on the subject which shall put an end to the abuse, and the reputable silversmiths and jewelers all over the country are unanimous in their demands for measures to stamp out the evil. For this sort of fraud is equally unjust to the honest dealer and the public. The unscrupulous manufacturer who stamps "sterling" on his plated goods makes such a percentage of profit on the transaction that he is naturally averse to any reform in the existing order of affairs. To be sure he could still make his plated ware for nobody could or would object to that very legitimate and laudable occupation, but if prevented from placing the misleading stamp on it he would be ousted from his present coign of vantage in which his dishonest wares can be sold for much more than they would otherwise bring yet still keep below the prices the jeweler must charge for real silver.

THE REASONABLE METHOD OF PURCHASING SILVER.

Until such a law is passed, and in fact with any number of legal protections, the safe and common-sense way is to deal with firms about whose productions there can be no question, and if the shopper would only insist that his jeweler show him the stamp

of the Gorham Company he would not be subjected to the chance of such imposition.

"CHEAP" SILVERWARE USUALLY DEAR.

There is one point about which many people have the most absurd idea: the question of "cheap" ware. Real silver cannot possibly be "cheap" for if it were, no one would value it—which seems almost too self-evident a proposition to need asserting, yet it is just this tendency to attempt to get a great deal for very little, joined with an inevitable ignorance on the part of the purchaser as to what is a reasonable valuation, that has made the widespread fraud possible. To be sure there are degrees in price, but it does not require any great amount of perspicuity to decide that articles offered for less than the silver itself would be worth, can hardly be genuine. As in everything else the only problem is to get an honest value for the money expended, and the solution is simple and infallible. To begin negatively—do not purchase your silverware from any dealer except the silversmiths and the jewelers supplied by them, for the department stores cannot obtain the products of the most reliable silversmiths, since the latter have become unanimous in their rejection of such channels of trade, owing to the damage done to the reputations by the misrepresentations of ignorant clerks. Then always look for the Gorham mark



and you will run no risks. One great advantage of buying the wares made by this company is that although their productions are invariably up to the standard, the cost is comparatively reasonable owing to the fact that their vast business and their very complete equipment, together with the economical division of labor practiced at their manufactory, enable them to supply these superbly artistic creations at the lowest possible figures. The largest business of the sort in the world, with its own art



library, artists and famous metal-workers must of necessity have advantage over all competitors.

ART WORK IN SILVER.

The achievements of the silversmith since the time of the world's infancy when the "electrum of Sadis," as Sophocles terms it, was fashioned into crude but beautiful forms, present a marvelous exhibition of the precious white metal. Owing to the reign of Justinian one of the treasures of Constantinople was a silver column—the "column of Theodosius"—which is said to have weighed 7,400 pounds. The massive and ornate altar now in the Church of St. Sophia has columns covered with heavy silver plates, and an altar canopy vaulted with silver and resting on four silver gilt pillars, in all of which two tons of pure metal and an incalculable amount of artistic skill were employed. It has in all lands and in all ages been a favorite medium for the artistic decorator, yet, after all, there are few, if any, of these antique wonders which our modern silversmiths cannot equal and surpass, for we have all the accumulated wealth of experience bequeathed by successive generations together with appliances then undreamt of. The exquisite work which is produced each year by the Gorham Company—noted everywhere for the strikingly graceful effects of both form and decoration in their ware—is worthy of a place beside the highest achievements in metal work, either past or present.

MARKS ON SILVER.

There are few experiences so exasperating and humiliating as to invest in some showy bit of ware and find out too late that it is a polished delusion, but it is evident that indiscriminate purchasing makes it well-nigh impossible to avoid the pit-falls laid by the manufacturers of sham silver for the

"eternally gullible." There is an amusing historical instance dating back over twelve hundred years which would seem to show that our remote fore-fathers were even worse off than ourselves in this respect. Eligius, or St. Eloy, the most famous goldsmith of Timoges in the beginning of the 7th Century, was commissioned by King Clothaire II. to make him a golden statue, and the requisite amount of the metal was delivered to the artist. To the king's astonishment, however, Eligius presented him with two statues of the expected weight, and for several generations the simple-minded historians naïvely chronicled the performance as a miracle wrought by the old man, the truth being that he had merely added fifty per cent of copper. The method nowadays would be to deposit in a bank what should go toward the duplicate statue. Evidently, too, the successors of the miracle-working Eligius were slow to imitate more than a portion of his process, for about the middle of the 13th Century we find laws promulgated in both France and England regulating the alloying of silver and gold. Philippe le Hardi required the *argentarii* of France, under penalty of a confiscation of their goods, to stamp all their works with the *seigne* of the town in which their forge was situated, while an English ordinance penalized the use of any silver in the arts of a lower grade than that of which the coin was made. Later on, in 1300, another statute granted to the Goldsmiths' Company the right to assay all articles produced. It is the "hall-mark," or stamp of the Goldsmiths' Company upon which purchasers of English silver rely implicitly to-day and with reason, for it is no exaggeration to say that practically every part of every article manufactured of gold or silver is assayed either at the central office in London or at one of the assay towns. The Goldsmiths' Company is thus enabled

to exercise a constant supervision over the work of each silversmith in Great Britain, and their stamp consequently carries with it the weight of conviction. No such check is imposed in the United States, and it is only written the last year that several states, New York being the second chronologically, have passed ordinances declaring it a misdemeanor to stamp any article as "sterling" which does not contain .925 pure silver, or as "coin" if it falls short of the requisite .900. That these laws do not succeed in protecting the purchaser has been shown above, but we have an unerring guide in the maker's mark, which is to be found on nearly every article of American silverware extant. Even the most hardened law-breakers have not yet ventured to counterfeit the maker's marks, so the sight of the Lion, the Anchor and the letter G, which have been for forty-five years accepted in their capacity of the Gorham stamp as an assurance of purity and merit, will settle at once the difficult question as to whether you are buying honest ware which your children and "their children's children" may pass

on as heir-looms without impairing their beauty and value, or whether there will some day appear on the face of the article the tell-tale hue which proclaims the adulteration of the noble metal.

DIFFICULTY OF DETECTING IMPURE SILVER.



Practically none of the silver used in the arts is absolutely pure, since the softness of the metal precludes the possibility of fashioning it into lasting articles of intricate and complicated shapes without the addition of some alloy. Though the hue of the copper used is in striking contrast to that of the original metal, the exceeding of the .075 allowed by law need not produce any change in appearance, for a very much larger proportion can be added without causing any perceptible discoloration, even to the expert. So do not fancy, unless you chance to be a practical assayer, that your opinion, based on the look of the ware, is of much account; the purchaser is quite at the mercy of the manufacturer and vendor, and those who desire to avoid the unpleasant experience of having a sham palmed off on them will do well to remember the Gorham mark and always look for it.



"MY HAIR IS MY PRIDE.

"It is nearly fifty inches long,
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very thick.

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times a week, how I pre-
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reply is always the same:

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beautifier I would and
do recommend it to all."

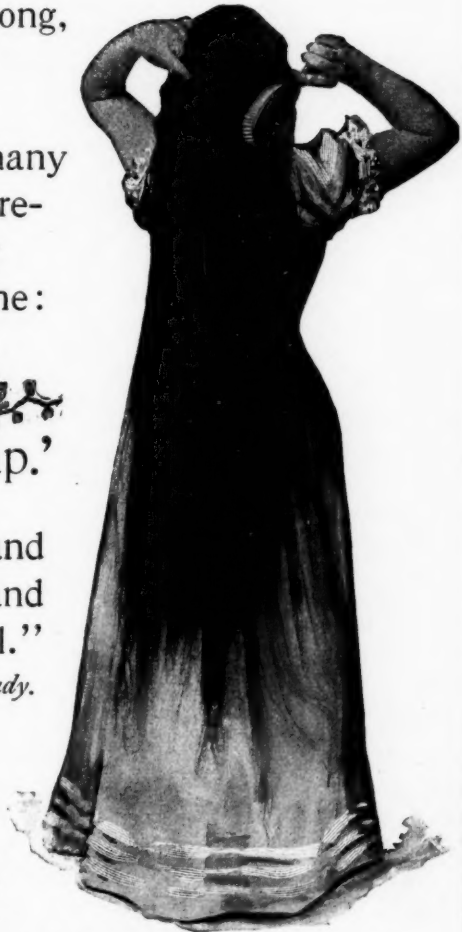
From a Boston Lady.



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most refreshing and delicious for the
bath. It gives one such a sense of
exquisite cleanliness. I have used
but two cakes, and my Skin has
become Soft and Fine, and my Com-
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From a Philadelphia Lady.



(Photo. from life. See accompanying letter.)

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THE CHAUTAUQUA CORRESPONDENCE COLLEGE.

Through the College of Liberal Arts, a department distinct from the reading circle, Chautauqua undertakes to give to earnest students at home the discipline and training afforded by a regular college course. The purpose has been and is to do a work that has not been done, and to supplement rather than supplant the established institutions. Chautauqua all along has stood for the better education of mature minds.

By the now thoroughly tested and successful correspondence method, men and women who are prevented by business, home duties, or other interests from going to school or college have the advantages of professorial guidance and criticism in the study of standard text-books upon all college subjects. Naturally the members of Chautauqua College in the great majority of cases work for special training along certain definite lines rather than with the purpose of completing a full curriculum and taking a degree; and the plan has been so formulated as to allow each student to study the special subject in which he or she is most deeply interested. For those who are unable to do satisfactory work in college subjects a number of preparatory courses have been arranged.

The faculty of Chautauqua College is composed of men in some of the leading universities and colleges of America, and the work done by correspondence for Chautauqua is on a par with that done by them in the institutions with which they are connected. Among the colleges represented are Yale, Wesleyan, University of Wisconsin, University of Chicago, Ohio University, and Syracuse University.

The correspondence method of study requires much harder work upon the part of the student, but the effort required and the necessity of writing clear, definite, and exhaustive recitations insures the student making thorough preparation; while the written criticisms, suggestions, and references of the instructors clear up difficulties that may remain and furnish the student

with a basis for more extended reading and study when that is advisable.

Students are received at any time, and as they are taught individually, and not in classes, they may make as rapid progress as their own time and ability will allow. On the other hand, those whose time is quite fully occupied are not compelled to hurry over their lessons, but may take as much time as they need.

In Political Economy the work conducted by Professor Ely, of the University of Wisconsin, is especially attractive to those who are interested in studying the forces operating in current history. The first course is devoted to a study of the principles and historical outline of the science, while the second deals with the general subject of finance. The work in both courses is very largely historical and inductive.

In the History department Prof. William H. Mace, of Syracuse University, offers five very instructive courses, special attention being paid to English History, The American Revolution, The Development of the Nation, a Comparative Study of the French, American, and Puritan Revolutions, and Europe Since Napoleon. A course of especial interest to ministers is devoted to a study of The Protestant Reformation.

The School of Biology conducted by Prof. Herbert W. Conn, of Wesleyan University, includes both text-book and practical work. For intending medical students and others the course in Anatomy and Physiology is of value. One course is given up to a study of philosophical biology, including a study of evolution, theories of heredity, etc.

Besides the subjects mentioned, courses are offered in all college studies, including the ancient and modern languages, mathematics, literature, geology, etc.

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EXTRACTS FROM LETTERS FROM MEMBERS OF CHAUTAUQUA COLLEGE.

September 22, 1895.

—Please send me a Chautauqua College Calendar for the coming year. I am very much satisfied with my last year's work with the college and intend to continue it.

September 22, 1895.

—I am sure it would give me much pleasure and profit to continue studying with the C. C. L. A. were it possible to do so. The College has my gratitude for the amount of good it did me—disproportionately large to the work I was enabled to do. It bears always my heartiest respect and voice for its interests whenever and wherever possible.

October 11, 1895.

—Your kind letter concerning my work in Chautauqua College was just received. I did find my work not only pleasant, but also helpful. I never enjoyed any other work as much as that. I would continue my studies with Prof. McClintock this year were I not a busy student here in Oxford College. I regret that I have no helpful ideas to offer. To me Chautauqua College appears to be perfect.

October 18, 1895.

—I feel that the work I have done under the Chautauqua system has been of great benefit to me. My position is such that I have not been able to devote as much time to study as I would like, nor as much as I feel I should to do justice to the matter in hand. For this reason I have delayed re-enrolling, as I hope to be more favorably situated in the near future.

October 21, 1895.

—I can say truly that the instruction

received in the Chautauqua College was the very best in character. It has been of incalculable benefit to me.

October 26, 1895.

—I will say that I have found the work very pleasant and profitable. I expect to take up solid geometry later. I have tried and shall try to interest others in the school, since it is of inestimable value to those who cannot attend schools and colleges. I think the correspondence method has its advantage over others. I find there is a great difference between having a general idea of a subject, and expressing the idea on paper in such an exact way that others will understand it.

October 26, 1895.

—My year of work by correspondence with Dr. Robinson having just expired, I write to you, as I have to him, that I shall be unable to do any work by correspondence this year, as I am doing a year's work at Radcliffe. One of my courses is Latin, and owing to my work with Dr. Robinson I am able to take a course in advance of what I should otherwise have been able to do. My college work is not by any means a direct outgrowth of Chautauqua, for that has been a hope for many years, but the Chautauqua work, from the C. L. S. C. on, has helped me to keep in touch with all kinds of study, and I am always ready to speak a good word for Chautauqua in all its branches. The name is a sort of talisman for all who have really entered into the spirit of the place and the work. May its shadow never grow less!

For full information address JOHN H. DANIELS, Executive Secretary, Station C, Buffalo, N. Y. Always enclose stamp.

